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THE CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL OF PHILADELPHIA.

II. THE NEW BUILDINGS.

THE first appropriation for the new buildings was secured from the finance committee of city councils on the evening of November 21, 1892, and the buildings were formally dedicated on November 22, 1902. While this long delay was vexatious, yet it was due, in very large measure, to the legal obstacles which were interposed at almost every stage of the construction. When the site at the southwest corner of Broad and Green streets was selected, at the junction of two of the leading avenues of the city, condemnation proceedings were at once instituted, but not until October 20, 1894, was the corner-stone laid. The main building was completed and occupied by September, 1900, but the annex was only finished in time for the dedication. The total cost of site, buildings, and equipment was \$1,587,043.16, of which \$400,000 was spent for the site alone.

The dimensions of the buildings are as follows: size of lot, 186 feet 5 inches by 395 feet 6 inches; main building, 170 feet by 221 feet 11 inches; annex, 86 feet by 150 feet; height of tower, 137 feet. The buildings were designed and the construction supervised by the architects of the board of public education—Joseph D. Austin, Joseph W. Anshutz, and J. Horace Cook—under the general direction of the committee on property of the board, of which Mr. Paul Kavanagh is chairman. The

architecture is of a general Norman type, and the buildings are fireproof throughout, the entire structure being of granite.

The main building, exclusive of the basement and the observatory, contains sixty rooms, of which forty-six are class-rooms, six laboratories, two lecture-rooms, a faculty room, two offices, and three storerooms. The basement contains fifteen rooms, of which two are equipped as laboratories. The class-rooms are furnished with chairs with desk-arms of a special pattern designed with a particular view to the student's comfort. All of the rooms have richly ornamented steel ceilings, with bright and beautiful colorings. Each room is heated and ventilated by the forced-draught system, operated by huge fans in the basement, which can supply twenty-five cubic feet of fresh air per minute for each student. The temperature is regulated automatically by a thermostat.

The halls are floored with hard rubber tiling, thus deadening sound and insuring against slipping, and are tiled at the sides to a height of 5 feet. The corridors are nearly 16 feet wide, and form a square around the inside of the building, where there is an open court-yard, 80 feet 10 inches by 66 feet 6 inches. All of the class-rooms are between the corridor and the outside. There is therefore ample provision for light and ventilation, and the court-yard is of special use for recreation purposes.

Some of the class-rooms are arranged to accommodate two and three sections, so as to permit the grouping of students to receive the same instruction. The chemical and physical lecture-rooms will each hold 180 students, so as to accommodate all of the sections of the upper classes, and are arranged in the "hippodrome" fashion, so that each student may observe the demonstrations on the tables in the front of the room. They are fitted with a large table, with abundant supplies of water, gas, electric current, and with glass-hoods for the removal of noxious fumes.

As a result of the enthusiasm aroused by the dedication, the alumni and students, under the general direction of a faculty committee, have developed plans for the decoration of the halls and class-rooms. At the entrance corridor stands a cast of the

Venus of Melos (Caproni), the gift of a recent class. Albert Rosenthal, of the seventy-fifth class, presented a series of his own historical engravings and etchings for the decoration of the corridor near to the historical rooms. It is probable that within a few years the wall space in of all the corridors will be used appropriately in this manner.

Of the rooms in the main building, the equipment of several is worthy of special description.

The laboratory of physics is situated on the first floor, and is 32 feet by 54 feet. It has a southerly and westerly exposure, and is one of the lightest rooms in the building. There are five large double tables which will accommodate about fifty students working at the same time. These tables are provided with closets and drawers for convenient storage of the apparatus; the tops are flat and made of solid oak. Gas and water supplies are conveniently located. The ventilation is excellent, and there is also a hood under which fuming acids, etc., may be used.

Among the special apparatus with which this laboratory is equipped may be mentioned the cathetometer, a Waterman calorimeter, a fine photometer, electrical measuring instruments of the most recent types, barometers, and various optical instruments. Six brick piers built up from the ground permit the proper mounting of these instruments. A select library of physical works of reference is accessible to those working in the laboratory.

The work in this department is inspired by the memory that from 1870 to 1880 Edwin J. Houston and Elihu Thomson, two young alumni, and teachers of the school, perfected in the earlier laboratories the series of inventions which have made their names world-famous.

The chemical laboratory is on the second floor, directly above the physical, and has the same dimensions. The tables are large and commodious, and are provided with all modern conveniences for practical work in chemistry—inorganic, organic, and analytical. The tops are of hard oak, kiln-dried, and are 4 feet 6 inches in width. Water, gas, and electric current are amply provided. The equipment of this laboratory includes several fine balances

set upon a brick pier, large gasometers, automatic generators, a combustion furnace, assay furnace, spectroscopes, and many other fine instruments, as well as a complete library of works of reference. Sixty students can work in this laboratory at the same time, although generally a squad of about a dozen is placed under the direction of one instructor.

The mineralogical laboratory is on the third floor, and is modeled after the chemical laboratory. It has forty-eight working places, which are so constructed as to permit of the examining and testing of all kinds of minerals and rocks.

The geological museum contains a fine collection of minerals and rocks, geological models, charts, and pictures. Its library includes all the important publications of the U. S. Geological Survey, and many works of reference.

The two *biological laboratories* are located on the fourth floor, and have been equipped with desks of a special design. The southern room, having the better light, is used for the microscopic work and for the work in general botany, while the northern room is reserved for the elementary work in zoölogy. The equipment is complete, and has been supplemented by a number of specimens, illustrating the principal fibers of plants, etc., received from the Commercial Museum of Philadelphia.

Three northwest corner rooms are devoted to the use of the department of art, in order to insure an abundance of steady north light. They are furnished with drawing tables of a special design, so arranged that the students may work with equal ease and comfort, either standing or sitting. Each room is also provided with an outfit of models, such as geometric solids, familiar objects, etc., used for pictorial drawing. On the walls are frames, containing plates and other material illustrative of the various kinds of work done, as well as a number of pictures and casts for decorative purposes.

The largest room, in which the work of the higher classes is carried on, contains the most and best of the decorative material; there are a series of charts of historic ornament, casts of characteristic sculpture of various periods, a couple of Parthenon frieze panels, the Victory of Samothrake, two Fauns from Pom-

peii, the Assyrian dying lioness, several Renaissance reliefs, bits of Gothic ornament, etc.; and a number of carbon prints and etchings—architectural subjects and reproductions of the work of the world's great painters. A large portable wooden screen contains a lot of casts of ornament, which, with a small collection of bric-a-brac, furnishes material for the more advanced pictorial work. A volunteer sketch class is maintained, which meets on the afternoons of each week after the regular school hours. This room is also used for the lectures to the senior class on the history of art. There is a collection of about 2,500 carefully chosen lantern slides used for illustration, along with the casts and pictures, and a reference library of about 200 volumes, and a number of portfolios of plates.

The astronomical observatory occupies the space of the tower above the fourth floor. It includes seven rooms, a large transit-room, and two equatorial domes, the larger being eighteen feet in diameter. The rooms of the observatory are to serve as computing, historical, photographic, library, clock, concave-grating, and astronomical class-rooms. The new telescope, which has just been installed, has a fifteen-inch lens, while the old telescope has been placed in the smaller dome, to serve for illustrative purposes. While the course in astronomy is of necessity elementary in character, yet the elaborate equipment of this department is justified by the expectation that its work will aid in popularizing the higher sciences with the general public. It is noteworthy that among the alumni of the high school are to be found Charles T. Yerkes, who endowed munificently the observatory of the University of Chicago, and Professor George Davidson, formerly superintendent of the Pacific Coast Survey, who in 1874 was authorized by James Lick to announce that the greatest telescope in the world would be installed on the Sierra Nevada.

The engine-room is located in the western part of the main building. Here are two Naylor "Corliss" engines, one having cylinders 22 inches in diameter, 42 inches stroke, directly connected to a 180 K. W. Siemens-Halske generator, the other having cylinders 16 inches diameter, 36 inches stroke, directly belted

to a 90 K. W. Siemens-Halske generator. Both engines and generators are slow-speed type.

The switchboard controlling the entire lighting and power system for the main building and assembly hall is constructed of polished white Italian marble, and inclosed in a handsome quartered oak frame, placed a sufficient distance from the wall to allow easy access to all the bus-bar work and connections. The board is provided with a full complement of Weston voltmeters, cutters, circuit breakers for power circuits, and Bristol recording gauges. The board is arranged for the use of a storage-battery system.

The wiring system throughout the building is of the most improved character, all wiring being concealed in iron conduits and arranged with separate circuits for rooms and halls. A general experimental circuit has been run throughout the building, with attachment plugs provided in laboratories, for testing plugs, etc. The lighting in the main building is principally by means of chandeliers, controlled by switches at subcenters of distribution. In the annex, the lighting is accomplished mainly by means of incandescent arc lights of the long-burning type.

The main building is connected with the annex by three iron corridors, eight feet in width, connecting each floor of the two structures. The space between the main building and the assembly hall is 58 feet 3 inches by 85 feet, and is utilized in the basement for boiler, engine, and dynamo-rooms.

The basement of the annex contains the coat-rooms and lunch-rooms for the students. Each student has a locker three feet high, secured by a Yale lock of individual pattern.

The first floor of the annex contains on the north side a lecture-room seating three hundred people and equipped with all the appliances for scientific lectures. It is probable that this room will be used for public evening lectures. On the south side of the first floor is the alumni library room, containing at present three thousand volumes, but with room for indefinite expansion. A number of pictures of eminent alumni have been placed on the side walls, and the alumni records will eventually be stored here.

The second and third floors of the annex are used for the large assembly hall, 80 by 144 feet, with a gallery on the east side, and with a total seating capacity of 1,750. This hall is the pride of the school. As a part of the dedication exercises, there was presented to the school a series of eight portraits of all of the presidents of the school, several being painted by artists who were students under the men whom they thus portrayed. Two classes presented heroic casts of classical subjects, which have been placed on the stage. But the chief interest centered in the memorial window to Edward T. Steel, formerly president of the board of public education of Philadelphia, presented by members of his family. This window was prepared by Tiffany & Co., and contains twelve allegorical pictures, arranged in three lancet windows and representing astronomy, instruction, wood-carving, recreation, sewing, painting, chemistry, singing, cooking, studying, forging, and kindergartens. The dimensions are 20 by 14 feet, and the inscription reads: "In memory of the love Edward T. Steel bore the children of Philadelphia."

In the speech of presentation, Hon. Hampton L. Carson, who has just been appointed attorney general of Pennsylvania, thus eloquently explained the allegory:

The beautiful window which has just been unveiled is the gift of loving hearts in memory of a husband and a father. The pious wish of years has at last been fulfilled, and a suitable memorial is now erected which will perpetuate the name, the services, and the fame of one who devoted the best years of his life and all his dying strength to the cause of education. You observe that the window is divided into twelve panels; and, taking the middle row, you will notice at the top that the sowing of the seeds of knowledge is typified by the sower sowing his seed. Immediately below that is the suggestion that, just as the seed is sown, there are certain periods when there must necessarily be recruited the forces of the body as well as of the mind; and in that beautiful group of children about a May-pole we find the thought and the suggestion of recreation. Below that, under the inspiration and the suggestion of music, you have the infant soul lifted up and the thought

"Nearer, my God, to Thee!
Angels beckon me"

from these lutes and pipes and tabors which suggest the music of child-life; and below that, after recreation and exaltation of spirit have each contributed

their part, you have children in hours of sober and serious devotion to duty, preparing their toil in the hours of study. The remaining panels are suggestive of science, of art, and of the useful crafts which play so prominent a part in human life; astronomy typifying the exalted studies which would sweep the universe and the stars; then to that—which was needed—a deeper thought on the part of him whose memory is there commemorated, you have in the work of the sub-primary school or the kindergarten the children engaged in the art of sewing; below that the art of painting; and below that again the useful arts of instruction in cooking. On the right-hand upper corner of the window you have that of wood-carving; and if the light suffices to suggest, you will find the young artisan bending over his block of wood; and under his skilful touch the features of a child's face appear suggestive, indeed, of that thought which, whether expressed by Addison the essayist, or whether defined as a simple and practical expression in the thought which burned and dwelt in the soul of Mr. Steel—that out of a child's life, out of an unformed mass of characteristics yet undeveloped—the skilful hand applied under the inspiration of a godlike sense of duty to the child and to the state—you can have developed those angelic qualities of childhood which in time will ripen into useful and noble manhood. Below that you have again the children in the kindergarten; and then again art and science typified by chemistry; and immediately below that in the right-hand, lowest panel the art of forging, or that which Mr. Steel felt to be so important, the matter of manual training. In other words, that window, glowing in the sunlight and representing, as though by a jeweled crown, the long years of patient intelligence and conscientious labor which this president of the board of education bestowed upon the duties of his office—child-life in school.

The lighting of the auditorium is effected largely by means of between 400 and 500 lights placed back of a cornice near the ceiling and running entirely around the room. The lights are provided with parabolic reflectors so arranged that the light is thrown out without the lamp being seen from the auditorium floor.

The stage is provided with footlights and procenium arc lights, both being arranged so as to be concealed from in front of the stage, the light being thrown directly on the stage. All the lighting in the auditorium is controlled from a switchboard located in a room adjoining the stage. This switchboard is of highly polished, white Italian marble and has mounted on it all the lights for the auditorium lighting, together with the controlling levers for the dimmers. A full set of dimmers is provided for dimming all the lights in the auditorium. The whole

switchboard is enclosed in a quartered-oak cabinet, arranged with sliding front and plate-glass panels.

The fourth floor of the annex contains the gymnasium, of the same dimensions as the assembly hall, and rising to a height of forty feet. This has been elaborately equipped by the Narragansett Machine Co., and its use is anticipated with much delight by the students of the school.

This, then, is the provision which the city of Philadelphia has made for the higher education of its young men. With traditions so inspiring, with an outlook so full of generous promise, secure in the loyalty of its alumni and in the appreciation of the community which supports it, surely this old school may look forward to better days and even more useful work than in its notable past.

FRANKLIN SPENCER EDMONDS.

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL,
Philadelphia.

THE CECIL RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.¹

STRATFORD-ON-AVON has given us two men of imperial imagination—two men who in most majestic vision saw

"The cloud-capped towers, the gorgeous palaces,
The solemn temples, the great globe itself."

Unabashed they treated all as an "insubstantial pageant" because they wielded the magic art of Prospero, and could say,

"These our actors
As I foretold you, were all spirits."

Naturally at the opening of the seventeenth century Shakespeare, the man of letters, gave homage to action in drama; at the opening of the twentieth century, Rhodes, the man of deeds paid tribute to letters by donations. Both men could deal with nothing less than universals, and found letters and life inseparable.

Mr. Rhodes's endowment, among others, of approximately one hundred American scholarships at Oxford, two for each state and territory, yielding \$1,500 a year for each scholarship for a possible period of three years, promises the realization of his purpose, "the union of the English-speaking peoples throughout the world." He reasoned well in the codicil to his will when he said: "for a good understanding between England, Germany, and the United States will secure the peace of the world, and educational relations form the strongest ties." His idea is worthy of the twentieth century. More than a hundred years ago Washington's will, making a bequest for a national university at Washington, was a precursor of the cosmopolitan university provisions of this true imperialist's will. Tennyson sang of "The Parliament of Man, the Federation of the World." Rhodes raises out of the political dream a greater and more immediately practical spiritual federation of the world through the common republic of letters. His provisions are along the

¹Read before the National Association of State Universities, Washington, D. C., January, 1903.

lines laid down by Oxford when she began her work of providing for the affiliation of colleges in the colonies and dependencies.

The great gifts of Carnegie to the Scotch universities and Carnegie Institution at Washington are complemented in a plan of world-wide scope. It is a mighty idea that will bear rich fruitage beyond our anticipation in the international, industrial, educational, and political realms.

As to the application of the will in England, we can trust Oxford to adjust herself to the gift, and to make without disturbance arrangements for the work contemplated and for the adequate fulfilment of Rhodes's wishes. Here in America we have ready at hand in the state and public-school system, and nationally endowed universities and colleges, means for impartial appointments from among the candidates who may appear.

As is well known to many of us, the trustees of the Rhodes will addressed a communication, June 16 last, to Mr. Choate, the United States ambassador, containing the provisions of the will relating to scholarships. They requested that the views of the chief officials having the control of education in the various states and territories be ascertained and communicated to the trustees. Hon. John Hay on July 5 inclosed a print of the communication above referred to, to the governors of the states and territories. In turn, to take an example, the governor of Iowa communicated with the state superintendent of instruction and with some college presidents. Possibly the reproduction of two responses from presidents may bring out clearly the points for discussion and serve as typical letters. First from the letter of President Dan F. Bradley of Iowa College at Grinnell. He says:

After studying carefully the terms of the bequest, I respectfully submit the following, viz.:

1. That scholarships be awarded by the governor after competitive examination held in each state and territory under the authority of the governor thereof.
2. That the governor appoint an examining committee of five competent scholars who shall conduct such examination at a central location, the expenses to be paid by each state, to nominate such candidates to the governor.

3. That only such students be eligible to such examination who hold a bachelor's diploma from a university or college of recognized standing in the state.

4. That such candidates be (a) men or women,¹ (b) *bona fide* residents in the state, (c) under twenty-five years of age, (d) not engaged in any profession, (e) unmarried, (f) in robust health.

5. In the selection of the examiners care should be had to select (a) those who are not closely identified with any of the faculties of the universities or colleges likely to send candidates for examination; (b) those who are not merely scholars, but men of affairs noted for good judgment.

6. Not more than two candidates should be permitted to compete at any time who have diplomas from the same university or college, these two candidates to be selected by the faculties of the institutions from which they received their diplomas.

The second letter is one written to Governor Cummins by me.

Following the printed excerpts from Mr. Rhodes's will as to American scholarships, I venture the following suggestions, the first of which may be superfluous:

1. That the trustees follow literally Mr. Rhodes's suggestions as to the four qualifications for an election to a scholarship, namely: (1) Literary and scholastic, (2) fondness of and success in manly outdoor sports, (3) qualities of manhood as enumerated, (4) exhibition of moral force of character.

2. Following Mr. Rhodes's suggestion, a marking system distributing the marks as he suggests, and taking 200 as the maximum number of marks. I believe that Mr. Rhodes must have seen that this would give opportunity, for example, to give 20 points to literary (power of expression) and 40 points to scholastic attainments, out of the possible 60 under Point 1.

3. In line with Mr. Rhodes's suggestion for the first classification and examination, we remark as follows: This examination, in a state like Iowa with a state university, should be given by the university. The university should invite representatives from the college section of the State Teachers' Association to sit as assessors, this college section being a practical federation of the university and the standard colleges of the state.

4. Mr. Rhodes provides for the second and third qualifications respectively by ballot by the fellow-students of the candidates. The examining board above mentioned should arrange for the taking of this ballot simultaneously by the fellow-students in the institutions respectively from which the candidates come.

5. The above-mentioned board in the same way should receive the fourth qualification made by the headmaster, that is, president, of the candidates' school.

¹ President Bradley must have failed to notice the limitation to "male" students in the provisions of Mr. Rhodes's will.

The marks obtained by each candidate should be tabulated and averaged by the university board above mentioned, and sent as Mr. Rhodes directs for the consideration of the trustees.

In explanation of the suggestions made I offer the following remarks: It is assumed that at least the entrance requirements ("responsions") at Oxford must be met by these candidates. It would seem to me desirable that the American scholarships should be taken by men who have ambitions to be class and not mere pass men, men who go in for the honor schools. The preparation of students in the middle West would therefore be that of our best high schools in the classical course, plus not less than a year in a standard college. The candidates, therefore, would be American college students. In some colleges they would have to complete the sophomore year. The regulations suggested, therefore, speak of the university, with professors from the standard colleges as assessors. As the greater includes the less, the scholastic examinations would be upon the college work only, and the balloting properly would be by college mates. If the student is competent at the end of his freshman year in our colleges to meet the entrance requirements at Oxford, with the three-years' residence there, the time required would be the same as if he remained in the ordinary American college. I deem it extremely important that the scholarships should not be open to those who have not had at least a year in an American college. I have assumed that the trustees will require the highest standards of admission to the colleges of Oxford, and the subjects required there for the different groups of study or "schools."

It will be hard to adopt one set of general regulations that will be equally fitting for the American scholarships in all the states and territories of the Union. In the great middle and western and southern states it might be possible to have general regulations, because these states have great public-school systems crowned by great state universities, and the National Association of State Universities would be able to handle this subject equitably. In the New England states, for the state university there might be substituted the senior institution of learning; for example, Harvard in Massachusetts, Yale in Connecticut, and, I believe, Columbia in New York, and Princeton in New Jersey.

Mr. Rhodes refers to the "minister having the control of education," which fits a colony or province. In a state, this might suggest a state superintendent of public instruction, but in most of the states the state superintendent has to do with the common or lower schools. In some states the head of the state university, as, for example, in Nebraska, is called in the statutes "the chief educator." For Mr. Rhodes's purpose it is likely that in most cases the president of the state university would most nearly fill the function thought of. I notice that Mr. Hawksley, in his letter, moves along this line of thought in asking for the opinion of the leading educational authorities in the United States, especially the heads of Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and other universities. It will be observed that, while the site of the examination and of the administration is placed at either the senior university in the state or the state university, I have emphasized that there should be assessors from other standard colleges invited to sit with the university. This is in accordance with the spirit of fair play and the present happy operations of the university and the standard colleges of Iowa. Oftentimes the candidates would come from the small colleges, and their interests are safeguarded, while the responsible institutions, the universities, recognized by the spirit of Mr. Rhodes's will and the spirit of the communication of his trustees, are charged with their share of the administration. I have assumed that the scholastic examinations would issue, in accordance with the provisions of Oxford, from there, and that they would be sent under seal to be given simultaneously at different centers in this country.

The president of the college, before casting his vote, should have conference with the principal of the high school or academy from which the candidate comes, and it is possible that the votes of the senior class in the high school should form an element.

Further, I am permitted to quote from a letter of Mr. W. R. Morfill, of Oxford, written in reply to inquiries of mine. He says :

I have consulted some of the authorities here, and the rules which are

pretty well settled in the various colleges about the reception of the Rhodes scholars seem to be as follows :

1. The scholars can come either as undergraduates or as research students; thus they can be practically graduates according to the American system when they arrive. If they wish to come as undergraduates (in the ordinary sense), they must pass "responsions" (or "smalls," as the examination is called in slang); if they wish to come as research students, they must get the certificate of the board which superintends their particular branch of study.

(2) As regards their residing in college or not, that will depend upon themselves, as a complete choice is now allowed in these matters.

It is self-evident that the American students must have sufficient scholastic preparation to avail themselves of the opportunities in Oxford, and to hold their own with the other students of the university. It is further evident that the organization at Oxford will permit two kinds of preparation, and therefore possibly two classes of students. First, those able to pass "responsions," which includes (a) stated subjects; (b) additional subjects. The candidate must offer arithmetic, and either algebra or geometry, together with Greek and Latin grammar, and translations from English into Latin prose and selections from Greek and Latin authors. The entire preparation of our students and the additional subjects to be taken at "responsions" would be broader than would appear from the enumeration of the subjects in "responsions;" for the students would need to be ready later to proceed to both first ("moderations") and second ("greater") public examinations. These, in turn, would depend upon which one of the eight "honor schools" or groups of studies they would enter. It has been assumed that we would not tolerate that our scholars should be simply pass men.

May we not, then, conclude with unanimity that the American candidate should *at least* have completed his sophomore year in a standard college, and that he should be advised that it is extremely desirable that he have his American bachelor's degree?

The second class of candidates would be those entering for special study and research, and proceeding to the newly instituted degrees of bachelor of letters and bachelor of science.

A candidate for either degree must be of the age of twenty-one years, and (a) must either be a B. A. in the University of Oxford, or give evidence of a good general education; (b) he must give evidence to the board of faculty or studies to which the course of study or research on which he proposes to enter belongs, of his fitness to enter on it, as well as that it is such as may profitably be pursued within the university.¹

It is evident that these candidates must, by all means, be graduates of the American college.

The following limitations, as set forth in the *Students' Handbook*, upon these degrees would make the first class of candidates seem the more desirable:

Unlike degrees in arts, degrees in letters or in science will not carry with them any share in the government of the university; nor will a bachelor of letters or of science be allowed to precede the degree of M.A., unless he has at some time qualified himself for and taken the degree of bachelor of arts. And, unlike students in arts, whose work for the university examinations is directed by the colleges, candidates for these degrees will throughout their course find their work supervised and directed by university officials, or by persons appointed by the boards of the faculties or studies who derive their authority from the university itself.

Having established that our candidates preferably should be college graduates, and in no case below entering junior standing, many problems of administration are simplified for us.

The board of administration should consist of university or college professors. The scholastic examination should be upon college work. The examinations should be given simultaneously in all states and territories. At the same session of the board the sealed ballots of the college classmates should be opened. The uniform marking system should be followed. Liberty should be given to each state to constitute its own board according to its peculiar needs, but under the principles that educational and not political authorities should appoint; as, for example, the board of regents in the state of New York. Where state universities prevail, the university should serve impartially and without expense the colleges of the state, and the colleges should be represented on the board. If a permanent co-ordinating American administrative center is requisite, no better

¹ *Students' Handbook*, University of Oxford, 13th ed., 1895, p. 218.

place could be found than the office of the United States commissioner of education.

General directions or regulations such as the trustees of the will, with the advice of Dr. Harris and Principal Parkin, might draft, would guide these administrative boards and secure a reasonable degree of uniformity of administration and maintain standards. This association of state universities would do well to offer its services, and by the appointment of a committee to confer with committees from some corresponding bodies, like the Association of American Universities, the Association of New England Colleges, the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges, and the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States, might, under the co-ordinating advice of Dr. Harris and Principal Parkin, submit a draft of suitable regulations.

We may heartily agree with Mr. John Corbin in his preface to *An American at Oxford*:

Whether or not Americans at Oxford become imbued with Mr. Rhodes's conceptions as to the destiny of the English peoples, they can scarcely fail to observe that Oxford affords to its undergraduates a very sensibly ordered and invigorating life, of very sensibly ordered and invigorating education. We have assimilated, or are assimilating, the best spirit of German education; and if we were to make a similar draft on the best educational spirit in England, our universities would become far superior as regards their organization and ideals, and probably also as regards what they accomplish, to any in Europe. The purpose and result of an introduction of English methods would, of course, not be to imitate foreign custom, but to give fuller scope to our native character, so that if the American educational ideals in the end approximate the English more closely than they do at present, such a result would be merely incidental to the fact that the two countries have at bottom much the same social character and instincts. If Mr. Rhodes's dream is to be realized, it will probably be in some such tardy and roundabout, but admirably vital, manner as this.

GEORGE E. MACLEAN.

PRESIDENT'S OFFICE,
The State University of Iowa.

ONE YEAR'S EXPERIENCE WITH MANUSCRIPT WORK.

THIS paper deals mainly with the problem of English in our city-school system and is not a treatise on rhetoric or rhetorical art. It is a matter of concern that the ability to speak and write readily and intelligently is so lamentably wanting in the children under our care. To investigate the causes of halting inaccurate speech and to discover remedies, is the need. From this side of the question I have approached the subject. All technical points of style, such as clearness, force, and elegance; unity, mass, and coherence, I have left untouched; they have been adequately dealt with by Professors Barrett Wendell, Adam Hill, Carpenter, Scott, Denny, Bates and others. The art of construction, it seems to me, is the most difficult and the most important part of the English work for the pupil to grasp. Expression is acquired unconsciously and after many days, and there are a thousand influences that mold that expression.

The one year's trial of manuscript work has brought forth interesting results. It has confirmed the widely prevalent opinion that the demand for more frequent and systematic written expression was a legitimate one. The main hindrance to the excellence of the written high-school English for many years has been plainly felt to be, not ignorance of what to do, but inability to accomplish through lack of an adequate teaching force. Year after year go up to the colleges the ranks of boys and girls from our schools, public and private, and year after year come back complaints that the preparatory work in English is unsatisfactorily done—with this mortifying discrimination that the work of the private schools approximates far more nearly the standard than that done by the public schools.

The reason for this state of things is not far to seek. The overworked, high-school teacher, with her seven classes of English, ranging from thirty to sixty pupils, finds it a physical impossibility to do justice to all sides of her work. She may stimulate her class and rouse it to enthusiasm over the several masterpieces of literature set to be read during the year; with the untiring assistance of the elocution teacher, a fairly sympathetic rendering of these same masterpieces may be secured from the conscientious or the bright pupils; her classes may be

able to answer every footnote, and to discuss intelligently the reading matter for the day; but when after all this energy has been put forth during school hours, and she returns home to the ever-mounting pile of composition papers from those seven classes of forty to sixty pupils, human nature is prostrate and, in the French phrase, "can no more."

Yet, that the need of the pupil for regular and systematic training in the written expression of his mother-tongue is imperative, no one feels more keenly than the conscientious English teacher. The only possible excuse for that teacher who confides the weekly grind of compositions to the waste-basket, without looking at them, is the indignant protest of human endurance. Since the writing must be done, and done under careful correction, the manuscript teacher, so called, has come into being—or rather, as it has once been well put, "The old-time brilliant lecturer on *belles lettres* has given place to a battalion of industrious theme-readers."

The faults of the average high-school pupil fall into two classes, of which those in the first class are far more serious and deep-rooted—faults of thinking and faults of expression. If we could teach the child to think clearly, we should go far to improve the quality of his written English. The great lack to be seen in reading over many themes is not the paucity of ideas, but the want of relationship of ideas in their co-ordination and subordination. The connectives, and conjunctive parts of speech in his work, are conspicuous by their absence. A clause which should be subordinate to the main clause, the groping child makes co-ordinate, or entirely independent. "But" is his favorite introduction of a contradictory or a modifying thought? Faithful "but" is on hand even when there is no contradiction whatsoever. The introduction of the conjunction "that," after a verb of saying, is a nicety, in the use of which the Latin teacher can drill him, in translating the long dispatches from Cæsar. Because of the deficient sense of delicate dependencies in thought and language, the teacher struggles long and valiantly against the independent English construction. Its persistent use by the high-school child is apparently due to the drill in the Latin ablative absolute

which he is getting at the same time. For example, "The train having started, the child cried out." It is a long fight to convince the pupil that a causal clause or a time clause is a better substitute for the ambiguous, awkward independent construction or English ablative absolute.

The same lack of close reasoning leads to another *casus belli* between teacher and struggling composer—the omission and the confusion of pronominal antecedents; and an animated discussion arises as to why "every child lost their hat" is not permissible.

The change in point of view is a frequent pitfall for the unwary scribe who, when he comes to reread his sentence or paragraph, finds that he has begun it in one person and wandered into another or perhaps a third person before he has made a laborious end.

The inability to think out an action clearly betrays the pupil into the misuse of the verb. He has great trouble with the preterits and pluperfect tenses, and actions stand to the front of the stage which should be thrown into the background, thus: "Jim sprinkled the grass before he milked the cows," for, "Jim had sprinkled the grass before he milked the cows." These two statements mean one and the same thing to the child; the relativity of actions is utterly lost upon him.

In grappling with the verb, the teacher meets one difficulty in the nomenclature of tenses. Is it not possible in the grades to teach the child the proper names of present, past, perfect, pluperfect, and future? This would simplify matters much, both for the Latin and for the English teachers. As it is, the child comes up equipped with the bewildering present, present perfect, past, past perfect, future, future perfect, and must learn the new names and their application from his high-school teachers.

Owing to this weakness of reasoning power, the teacher must lend her aid by supplying helpful material for the composition, and talking over all the bearings of the subject. This discussion of the material and plan of the composition is a very important feature, and does much to strengthen the thought-power of the pupil. He becomes filled with his subject, and out of the abund-

ance writes a better paper than he would with the *bare title* presented to him.

The presentation of the paragraph, as a unit of composition, rather than the sentence, is an efficient instrument in the hands of a keen teacher, to assist the weak constructive power of the pupil. The paragraph may be made a means of teaching logical thinking—in my opinion it is the most effective means at hand. The child grows and gathers strength when he passes from the consideration of the single paragraph, coherent, whole, complete in itself, with its many capacities of narration, description, comparison, enumeration and summary, to the paragraph in its relation to the long composition, one little unit within the greater unit.

How delightedly he discusses the first long composition, and fits together the various segments of the whole, shifting and arranging his outline of paragraphs according as exigency demands. Here a real live interest in the subject wakes up, and the constructive and synthetic forces are at work. Here the logical faculty has the greatest play in perceiving sequence and relationship, and the long, slow preparatory work to this end is bearing fruit to the patient teacher in the bright eyes and quick suggestions on all sides, as the subject and its bearings are explored. The outlining, or planning of a composition, is richer in pedagogical interest, and in direct practical bearing on the child's development, than any other part of the work. The repetition of this exercise strengthens and invigorates him; he feels the exhilaration of the creator, the joy of the making. In all this there is the direct contact of teacher and pupil, the sympathetic contact of co-workers in this same quarry.

The outline finished, the actual execution of the work is taken up. In the consideration of the expression, great differences of home environment divide the pupils of the same class from each other. Van Rensselaer, fresh from his boyish browsings in a fine old library, and an intelligent listening to the table-talk of cultured parents, drives his pen easily and gracefully through long and short periods, while patient Isaacs struggles with foreign idioms and all the difficulties of this grammarless, uninflected

language of ours, and fiery little Rafferty dashes headlong, larding his themes with inaccuracies and hibernianisms. The inequality of it all presses upon the English teacher.

In considering faults of expression in the Ohio schools, there are two points to be noted—the immense foreign element among us, and the general flatness and staleness of our westernisms, piquant though some may contend that they are. In Cincinnati the large foreign population has laid an additional burden on the English teacher, and foreign idioms and constructions are unconsciously caught and used by American-born children.

One of the most obnoxious and persistent of these solecisms is the wrong use of the auxiliaries *would* and *would have*, thus: "If he would have driven by, I would have seen him," for, "If he had driven by, I should have seen him." Another is: "Mary, your mother said you should come to supper;" still another: "He made me to write my lesson." Such school vulgarisms as, "The teacher left me do it," are hard to eradicate. These are only a few of the solecisms which a teacher meets with. For the foreign-born child or for him with foreign parents, only persistent correction and careful attention to speech can overcome these vicious habits. For all the children, foreign and American, there should be co-operation among the members of the school faculty for the suppression of bad English, and a spirit of watchfulness over each other's slips of tongue inculcated in the children themselves.

It is to be deplored that as a community we are so inaccurate in our daily speech. On all sides we hear such expressions as "those kind," "that far," "different than," "he don't," "step in a car," "climb on a platform," "acting like she does." Until their elders look more carefully to their words we cannot expect accuracy from the children.

To counteract the effect of this slipshod English, and the inveterate tendency to abbreviation, and exceedingly bad spelling, demand the reproduction of a spirited bit of fine English from time to time—a description from Irving, Hawthorne, or Poe, the characterization of Queen Elizabeth in Green's *Short History of the English People*, or several paragraphs from Macau-

lay's *Lord Clive*. We have Robert Louis Stevenson's own testimony, delightfully given, of the effectiveness of this way of cultivating an individual style by studies in the pages of others.

That familiarity with a good style has a salutary influence on composition I know from my experience with a class who were studying Myers's *Greek History*. Suddenly called upon to write an account of the battle of Marathon, they produced papers which rose to the occasion and told the story in a tone perceptibly more easy and elegant than that discernible in any papers handed in before.

Imitation must be the endeavor of the tyro before original creation—if such a thing exist. The school courses are not barren of good prose authors, but they are not so complete as the composition teacher might desire. Irving we have, but Hawthorne, Poe, and Macaulay are lacking in the first two years. The last named author is an inspiration in his almost perfect paragraph structure. For the plain narration of plain facts, no writing, in my estimation, is so helpful to the young as that of Defoe. The glory of the eighteenth century was its prose—plain, closely reasoned, elegant in simplicity; and of its authors, Defoe or Goldsmith are the most suitable to put before the pupil. Defoe will teach the child how to handle his thoughts and subordinate ideas one to another. If he wants examples of narration, description, exposition, argumentation, he will find excellent models of these in *Robinson Crusoe*, couched in the severely plain English of Defoe—a far safer style than the affectation of Addison or the inaccuracy of Steele.

This consideration brings me to the relation of the child's reading to his composition work. That it has a definite relation no one can deny, but too often an indiscriminate reading is encouraged, and the habit of devouring milk-and-water fiction is fostered. This is especially true of the children attending the city schools, some of whom take out a book a day from the city library.

A case came under my notice last year of a child who had great difficulty in her composition work. In despair she turned to me for assistance. I questioned her about her reading, which

I undertook to guide. After a year of supervision in slow, careful reading of stories, whose literary excellence was unquestioned, Mary came to be able to express herself much more fluently and more gracefully than she did at the beginning of the term.

Present-day pedagogics assigns it to the province of the manuscript teacher, not only to direct the manner of expression of ideas, but to provide the material or ideas to be expressed. This she must be able to do, either *per se*, or by directing the child's attention to the sources in books or in his own experience. Children are quick to imitate the example of their elders, and it is a pity that their young eagerness should feed upon the rank output of novels of the hour, whose moral and literary qualities leave so much to be desired. *The Gadfly* is not the most edifying and faithful representation of life which should keep a young girl up to the wee small hours of the night, because, as she confided to me, she knew very little about religion, and was anxious to learn more of it from this book. My yearly investigations into the favorite books of high-school boys and girls bring forth a thoughtful mood, while I reflect upon the responsibilities which lie upon some of us grown-ups toward the children. Careful attention to the outside reading of the pupils under her charge is the pleasantest and most influential part of the conscientious teacher's work.

For effective work in English to be accomplished in our schools, it is desirable that a closer relationship or association exist between the English teachers of all grades, especially between the manuscript teachers of the lower schools and those in the high schools. The daily theme-work in the grades is the more imperative because of a temper of mind which is growing up in the children. By this attitude of mind I mean the tendency to look upon all relationship with the teacher as a question-and-answer relationship. Inert, the child stands like a slot machine, till the rattle of the coin or question wakes up an automatic turning of the cogs of the mind. There is little initiative, but this quality can be cultivated by the written English of the lower grades.

One of the most salutary lessons I ever learned was the telling of the stories of Alfred the Great, Edmund Ironsides, the Great Charter, and other details of English history for a particular class. Question and answer were not tolerated in that teacher's lesson, and the student knew in study hour that he would be called on the next day to give a coherent story of the Saxon kingdom—to give it independently without any helpful suggestions. Each story I talked out to myself over and over. Then I secured an obliging listener and told the tale over again till I could tell it fluently and confidently. Had I been required to write it afterward, I doubt not the narration would have given evidence of former practice. The incident of this class work may serve as a hint of the very vital and close relation lying between the elocution teacher and the manuscript teacher and the history teacher.

The manuscript teacher, as well as the classical teacher, may demand carefully written English translations of Greek and Latin authors to be done under her eye. Practice of this sort will lend an added dignity in the pupil's eyes to the high work of interpreting or rendering thought from one noble medium into another.

These kinds of exercises in the lower schools will create a healthful spirit of initiative, and will assist the daily theme-work there, and will vindicate the establishment of special English work in our schools.

A manuscript teacher of whatever grade should have the time for painstaking correction of the papers submitted to her, and should oversee the careful revision of each paper in class. To write and revise under direction is the only royal road to excellence in expression.

The filing away of the original and the corrected manuscript, for the term at least, impresses the pupil with the seriousness of his work, and gives opportunity for the review of the progress made during the year. The reviews should take place in private conferences with the pupil, when suggestions and kindly criticism can be made, for which class teaching gives little time.

To summarize the result of the year's work. It has brought

forth and emphasized the division of the English work into *general* and *manuscript* departments; it has shown the faults of the beginner to be, first, inability to think logically, as proved by the lack of conjunctions and proper connectives, unnecessary changes in point of view, confusion and omission of the antecedent, misuse of the verb, and inability to construct independently a coherent, long composition; second, a lack of power of expression, due largely to home environments, foreign, illiterate, and cheaply common. It has emphasized the need of co-operation of all the grades in the English work, the need of developing a spirit of initiative in the child, its more frequent practice in expression, correction, revision, and the filing away of work done. Above all it has revealed the barren spiritual condition of the child growing up among us, starving amidst an abundance, when a proper fostering care and sympathetic supervision of his intellectual recreation would open to him the gates into that far, goodly country of joy and beauty, where he might feast or wander at will in that blessed "light that never was on sea or land—the consecration and the poet's dream."

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THE "FIT" REQUIRED BY NEW ENGLAND COLLEGES.

THE weakest spot in our present educational system is the fitting school. And the colleges are to blame for it. It is the conservatism—tyranny would not be too strong a word—of the colleges that fetters the many progressive men now engaged in preparatory teaching. For what can a single academy or high school do against the oppression of a great university?

Both ends of the educational chain have been immensely improved. The kindergarten and the primary grades are incomparably superior to what was provided for young children a generation ago. College courses have been enlarged and diversified until now there is an embarrassment of riches. The elective principle has been introduced, allowing for the multiplication of fields of knowledge and the variety of mental tastes. Students in college may now enter the new departments of thought characteristic of the twentieth century. But the fitting school has not been brought up to date. It remains an anachronism, a petrification.

The introduction of the elective principle into college courses was a signal advance. It was a recognition that all minds do not require the same training and that some studies are as good as others. Modern civilization was seen to be advancing, and a complete revolution in men's ways of thinking could not be denied. The subjects in which the living world was interested—natural and physical science, sociology, history, and modern literature—could not be refused a place. The answers to the questions upon which our health, wealth, and progress depend were to be sought, not in Greek, Latin, and mathematics, but in biology, chemistry, physics, economics, sociology, and psychology. Once introduced, the elective principle must cover the whole field. This has actually occurred at Harvard, where the student from the beginning is free in the choice of all of his

studies. The changes in other colleges are all in the same direction, and all colleges will ultimately reach the same goal.

But our satisfaction in contemplating the triumph of emancipation in American education is seriously diminished by the reflection that it is more apparent than real. The stupefying drudgery has not been eliminated; it has merely been transferred to the fitting schools. The requirements for entrance to college have been increased. The average age at graduation from the high school is now about eighteen or nineteen. The mental labor exacted from secondary students is doubtless as great as that which was demanded at Harvard when Edward Everett graduated at the age of fourteen. So the result of all of our fine advance is that our youth, at the formative age, when mental habits and tastes are crystallizing, are still excluded from all that differentiates the world of thought of today from that of a century ago. We train our young men on a system precisely like the French plan of shutting girls up in a convent until their marriage.

The students admitted to the Yale freshman class are fully developed men, powerful physically and mentally. They are at the proper age for advanced work. But for what sort of advanced work are they fitted? We open to the list of requirements for entrance as presented in the college catalogue. These men have read a limited, very limited, portion of Greek and Latin literature, and have acquired a limited, very limited, vocabulary in the two languages. They can translate easy passages at sight into English, and they can turn simple English statements, about the subjects that Cicero spoke of in his orations, into Latin, and simple statements about marches and battles into Xenophontic Greek. They have a pretty accurate knowledge of the rules and exceptions of the third declension in each language and of the uses of the subjunctive mood. They know something about Greek and Roman history and of algebra and geometry. Of modern knowledge, they have had a single elementary course of French or German, extending through one year, and a meager course in English. So far as Yale College knows or cares, not one of the freshmen knows a thing that Elihu Yale did not know

two hundred years ago. There is no consciousness that we live in a different intellectual world and that men like Darwin and Helmholtz and Virchow have lived and their works are to be studied. So far as Yale College knows or cares, not one of these freshmen has ever looked through a microscope, or has applied a chemical test, or has discovered for himself a fact. And their mental habits are already substantially formed.

Of course, things are not quite so bad in reality. These young men come from the most intellectual class of the American people. They have attended schools under enlightened educators. They have read scientific books for their own entertainment, and in practical photography and in many other ways have been initiated into new thoughts. But no thanks to the college for this. And we all know that desultory reading and amateur scientific amusement never can take the place of systematic and prolonged school training.

So far we seem to be making an attack upon Yale. But we speak of her only for convenience, because she stands in the front rank of colleges and her requirements are published in so simple a form. Harvard is nearly as guilty as Yale. But it is not quite so easy to bring home her sin. Harvard offers to accept entrance examinations from a larger and more varied list. As administered, however, both colleges reach substantially the same result. Thus, chemistry may be offered for entrance at Harvard. But the requirement is so severe as to be practically exclusive. A boy who detests Greek can meet the requirement in it with so much less labor than is demanded by the chemistry that, in spite of his preference for the latter branch, he gives it up until he shall become a freshman. The course in "Harvard physics" is so largely mathematical and so ill adapted to win young minds to interest in the fascinating phenomena of nature, that it has become proverbial. Harvard freshmen have therefore rather a theoretical than a real advantage over Yale freshmen.

Here is a matter that needs to be set right at once. The battle for a modern education, which we suppose ourselves to have won, has not been won at all. We are wasting the most precious

educational time of our most valuable minds. The men of the twentieth century have stupendous tasks before them. The problems of society demand solution under threats of appalling calamities. Never before did so much depend upon the intelligence, fairness, and breadth of view of public leaders. It is in the colleges that these leaders are prepared. But if the colleges receive their students wholly ignorant of all modern methods of investigation, ignorant of the elementary facts of the fundamental sciences, and, worse still, with mental habits of an archaic type already formed, what can they do?

School education has two functions. One is to teach a man the tools of the intellectual life. The other is to introduce him into the several departments of thought most vital to humanity. Reading, writing, and ciphering are the first things to be learned. The lower schools supply these tools. If the secondary schools could teach German and French so that each worker should have facile use of those languages two more invaluable tools would be added. It is out of the question to teach high-school boys four languages. But the persistent and severe labor now bestowed on Latin would insure a real mastery of German at least. German at the present day is an absolute necessity. A large share of the learning of the world is locked up in it. The higher algebra is not a necessary tool for any but specialists. Taught to read, to write, and to cipher, and furnished with the two important modern languages, there is no reason why the high-school boy should not be introduced without delay to modern literature, modern history, economics, chemistry, physics, biology, or whatever else most interests the men of today. The true principle in education is that the pupil should first study what is nearest and most interesting to him, and should then move backward and outward. Thus English should be studied before Anglo-Saxon, modern history before ancient, Shakespeare before Homer, physics before metaphysics.

The antiquated notion that the study of Latin alone can give a clear understanding of English grammar and of the English vocabulary need not detain us. German grammar is just as philosophical as Latin grammar. The English words we all understand

best are precisely the Saxon ones whose derivation we don't know. The same argument that requires us to learn Latin in order to understand English would require us to learn Sanskrit in order to understand Latin, and so on back. The decisive consideration in the case is that young people have not time to learn Latin and Greek. In learning those two languages now they use up all of the time they have in the fitting schools, and are forced to enter college ignorant of the simplest facts of matter, energy, life, society, modern history, and with only a very imperfect mastery of their own mother tongue. However great the benefits of classical study, they are far too costly at this ruinous price.

At the basis of modern civilization lie certain great sciences. These sciences are creating new heavens and a new earth. They have revolutionized our thinking in religion, in pedagogy, and in social relations. The purpose of this article is to ask: Why not use these sciences in secondary education? Today a young man might stand at the doors of one of our proudest universities, able to speak German and French, familiar with the history of Europe and America for the last fifty years; he might be an accomplished biologist; but if these were the whole of his accomplishments he could not rank with the boys who can turn simple English into Greek and Latin, and who understand algebra and geometry. Without making up his deficiencies in those branches he could not hope ever to receive an equal degree. Is this a wise and necessary arrangement?

To some readers our argument may seem merely a plea for the substitution of technical education for liberal education in "the humanities." Far from it. The technical schools aim primarily at fitting men for industrial operations. The colleges aim primarily at introducing men into the world of thought. Our contention is that college authorities have failed to wake up to the fact that modern science has not only given us the telephone, the electric light, and a thousand other conveniences and physical luxuries, but has also fundamentally changed our modes of thinking. The freshman who enters college knowing nothing but Greek and Latin grammar, and algebra and geometry is as

badly off as a monk of the Middle Ages would be should he come to life again today. He has yet to acquire the habits of mind which are the priceless product of the last grand century. And it is already too late in life for him easily to form correct habits. What we plead for is the extension to the secondary schools of precisely the same system that has put new life into the colleges—the elective system. Let boys and girls prepare for college by practice in the new thinking that is advancing humanity.

If the handicap which the colleges impose upon the secondary schools is injurious to those who are going to college it is even more disastrous to the far larger number who are not. So much of the force of the schools is diverted to the preparation of the candidates for college in things that the others do not care to know that the advantages of the more numerous class are greatly abridged. Even where sciences are taught the arbitrary requirement of a college may, as we have seen, spoil the course by making it excessive or dull. In the end we must come to this: the secondary schools will teach what people of today want to know. After four years of honest work the student, upon proper examinations, testing the quality of his scholarship, will be admitted to college, and will there study Latin, Assyrian, economics, psychology, or whatever he likes. The colleges will cease their unintelligent dictation abroad as they are in great part or wholly discontinuing it at home. The gain to all parties from the emancipation of secondary education will be immeasurably greater than that already enjoyed through the emancipation of higher education.

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PUBLIC-SPEAKING WORK IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.¹

THE rather broad title of my paper needs some definition. By "public-speaking work" I mean all that is generally spoken of under the head of elocution — oral reading, declamation, debating, the preparation and delivery of original addresses, voice culture; in short, the whole province of oral expression. What ought to be the place of work in oral expression in the high school?

Now, there is another question which naturally comes first to anyone who thinks about this subject: What *is* the place of oral expression, what work is done in oral expression in the high school? Very little. I make that statement unhesitatingly, though I have frankly to confess that I do not know much about what is done in the Connecticut high schools, and shall have to ask you to govern what I say by your knowledge of what is done there. I take some pains to find out what has been the preparation in this work of the boys who come to Amherst College. I know a good deal of what is done in the Massachusetts and New York schools. So far as concerns these schools at least, my statement is true; and I believe it to be true generally of schools throughout the country. Considered by itself, the work in oral expression is little, and less still when compared with the work done in any other important educational subject.

The case is very different from that of written expression. Those who teach English in high schools know what a vast deal of attention has been given to that subject of late years, and what strides it has made in our curricula. Compare the amount of attention now devoted to composition and rhetoric with that of fifteen and twenty years ago. There *is* no comparison. Then compare that work with the attention given to declamation, debating, the training of the voice. Again there is no comparison.

¹ A paper read before the High School Section of the Connecticut State Teachers' Association, October 17, 1902.

I can sum up the results of my investigation into the amount of this work done in Massachusetts high schools thus. You will be able to tell whether the summary holds good for Connecticut also. In few or no Massachusetts high schools is there any work in debating as a part of the regular school work, though a considerable number have debating societies connected with the school, and these are given some encouragement, a little criticism, and practically no training or assistance by teachers.

In declamation the case is the least bit better. Very few high schools make declamation any part of the regular school work, but many have occasional, and some regular, school exercises, in which declamations are delivered. So in these schools a few boys and girls have a little opportunity for work of this character. But the training or rehearsal for these exercises is at best slight and is generally wholly wanting.

If one were entitled to judge from the few reports I have from Connecticut schools, one might think Connecticut somewhat more attentive than Massachusetts to this kind of work. But at the very best, making all possible concessions, it is evident that the schools do not consider work in oral expression a very important educative influence. Why not? Well, there are more reasons than I can mention here, but these are some of them.

In the first place, there is a rather widespread impression that training in speaking in the high school is *futile*. If we could expect to turn out a good many Websters and Everetts, or even such orators as Senator Hoar and Senator Lodge, we should probably work pretty hard at it. But we know that there are not many such orators, and we have a vague notion that, at least so far as delivery is concerned, these men are self-trained. As for our lawyers and our clergymen, whom of course we expect to be good speakers and whom we criticise severely when they are not, we feel that the law school and the theological seminary, with perhaps some training in college, ought to be sufficient preparation for them. As for the teachers, it rarely occurs to us that they are the most frequent speakers to considerable audiences. We feel, in short, that the high school is for the *average*

boy, who may be anything as a man, but who pretty certainly will not be a public speaker, and that consequently the average boy does not need to be trained in speaking.

Another reason is a general distaste on the part of cultured people for public elocution. The extravagance, the tawdriness, the insincerity of the ordinary public reader disgust us, and we cry out upon the training which gives us that kind of thing, we incline to feel that all declamation or recitation is a sort of insincere and flashy show and pretense, not a real thing. A third reason — one which I find has a very great weight with some of the finest minds — is a feeling that public-speaking work, especially debating, is harmful to real culture and real scholarship; that in place of a devotion to the truth and an eager pursuit of it, it substitutes the advocate's spirit, the partisan spirit, than which in the domain of scholarship and culture nothing can be worse. They feel that it is training a man to show that black is white, to make the worse reason appear the better, and they revolt at such a course.

But by far the most important reason of all why we lack confidence in such training is the fact that very few of us ourselves have had it. We have not known its educative value in our own lives. How can we appreciate, then, the value it might have in the education of others?

Now, personally I am very deeply convinced of the great educative value of training in speaking. I want to make clear to you some of the grounds of that conviction, and I shall be glad if as a result any of you may be led to attach more importance to this kind of work.

The objection that the high school cannot set itself to the training of future Choates and Websters is a valid one. The problem for the high school, whose place in the state is the training, not of specialists, but of good and useful citizens, is this: Why should the high school give the average boy, who may become anything that is respectable, the opportunity and necessity of spending a good deal of time and hard and well-directed work in learning to speak well?

Because the man who cannot speak well is only half a man,

and only half fitted for good citizenship. He is just as truly, if not just as much, to be pitied as the man without legs or without arms. What would you think of a boy who trained himself to play football by carefully studying everything that has been written about football and all that the best coaches can say about football, but never ran a step, never caught a ball, never tackled a man, never broke through a line, till the day of a match game? You know that is an impossibility, and that if it were a possibility such a boy would be out of the game in just about two minutes. Now, that is just the condition of the man who cannot speak. He is out of the game of life, or at least the part he plays in it is small. You think, very likely, that that is exaggerated. You know any number of more or less successful men, especially business men, who never made a speech in their lives, who would be simply frightened if they were obliged to talk ten consecutive minutes to an assembly of any kind. But I did not say anything about making a speech. I said the man who cannot *speak well* is only half a man. It is very true that nearly every man has at some time or other to make a speech, and that not many can do it well; something might be said about that; but this, at least, is true, that we do most of our work in this world with other men and through other men, and we act upon them mostly by talking to them. For writing well the schools strive hard to give adequate preparation, but for one opportunity to influence others by writing, the ordinary man has a thousand opportunities to influence others by talking. The man who talks best, other things being equal, will be the most successful. The superior effectiveness of some educated men over others, declares President Eliot, lies not in their greater stock of ideas, for among educated men the stock of ideas is pretty constant and equal in value, but in their greater powers of expression.

Our boys cannot live their lives by themselves. They cannot be business men by themselves, any more than they can be preachers or lawyers or teachers all by themselves. Even if they are to be physicians or engineers or artists, they live with others, have beliefs which they want to induce in others, wish to influence others about a hundred things, and have to do it by talking

to them. They tell us that this is not the orator's age; it is the business man's. Even in the legislatures and Congress speech-making does not amount to anything any more; all the business is done in committees. Well, just because the committee is there for business, nowhere is good speaking more necessary—not speeches, but good speaking. Time is short; facts, not mere words, are wanted. The man who means to make his views effectual there must know how to express them clearly, concisely, forcibly, and he must be able to get clear ideas out of the verbose and puttering statements of others. That is being business-like.

And that is what I mean by "speaking well;" to be able to put your feelings and your opinions on any occasion in such a form as will accurately and clearly and concisely set forth just what you believe and feel, and in such a form, moreover, as will be effective to make others think and feel as you do. How many of us can do that? And yet does not every one of us desire and need to do it?

Yes, though we follow the fashion and preach with strenuousness to our pupils the doctrine of accomplishment, of doing rather than talking, by the very preaching we admit the necessity of the right kind of talking. Not much does a man accomplish by himself. The man with an idea, a purpose, must nearly always put that idea into the heads of others, must imbue them with his purpose, before idea and purpose can become a great fact.

Well, then, if this is so, has not the average citizen, to whom the high school has given a stock of ideas and purposes, a further great claim upon the school, that it shall teach him how to make his ideas effective, how to transmute purpose into accomplishment? And if it is true that a good deal of this transmutation depends upon good speaking, ought not the high school to teach its pupils how to speak well?

Now, some of you who have agreed with me thus far, perhaps, may be inclined to offer an objection here. You may say: "Admitting that this training is desirable, oral reading, declamation, debates, and so on are not the only means of obtaining

it. A good talker has to be a good thinker; clear thought produces clear expression. We train boys to think, and to think clearly. And we can point to many a good talker who has not had the kind of training which you are advocating."

I am ready to admit that this is a strong objection and largely true. If I were to try to point out what is weak and untrue in it I should need a good deal more than this hour. But this much I will say:

1. Look at the boys and girls whom you are graduating this year. Of how many of them are you prepared honestly to say that they are good talkers? And of those who are not, how many do you feel sure will have the opportunity and the means to become such hereafter?

2. You have been training these boys and girls to think. In the case of how many of them do you feel honestly satisfied with the results? If you are not wholly satisfied, and if, as I suppose most of us believe, the power to think well is one of the greatest aims in our education, ought not we to welcome any work which will contribute to this result, even if we have to throw over for it such memorizing and such observation as does not seem to contribute to this result? And if the training in speaking should prove to be helpful also in training the pupil to think, ought not we to welcome it? I believe that the right kind of training in speaking is one of the most admirable of the means of training in thinking.

3. Does not this objection that good thinking will produce good expression fail wholly to take into account the training of the voice? And do not the voices of our pupils in general wofully need training in force and clearness, in enunciation, in attractiveness and beauty? I am content to leave the answer of that question to you. For myself, I assert that the culture of the voice is one of the greatest deficiencies in our whole system of culture, and that one of the crying needs of our schools is constant practice in vocal calisthenics.

Now, whatever we may think about the amount of training which our pupils receive toward good speaking or talking, and whatever may be our estimate as to the number of high school

graduates who now talk well, I think I may count on your agreeing with me that the power to talk well, to talk pleasantly, sincerely, genuinely, clearly, forcefully, in family and friendly conversation, in business and professional life, is a desirable thing; that it is more necessary to the average man than the power to write well, upon which English teachers expend so much effort, and that we ought to strengthen the training toward that power whenever we can in our high schools.

Now I am going to indulge in some suggestions as to ways and means of so increasing our training, and as I do so I shall find occasion to make a little clearer in some places, perhaps, the value of more training and the need of it. My suggestions are not startlingly new; they consist mostly in reinforcing old ways.

Debating.—First, the high-school boys, and girls too, ought to have a large opportunity and a considerable necessity for debating. And they ought to have good training in debating.

It is in debating that our boys get today their chief opportunity for training in speaking; for in many of our schools there are debating societies to which a certain number of boys belong, and which are maintained with a considerable degree of interest. I believe in these societies most thoroughly, and one of my suggestions is that every high school ought to have one and that large high schools ought to have more than one.

There can be no question as to the value of debating, and I hardly need to lay any stress upon it. It forces the constant endeavor to set forth clearly and effectively one's own ideas; it trains one to think on one's feet; it brings the fluent and ready speech and the ability to find the fitting and efficient word just when it is wanted. And all *that* every man needs, if he never speaks to more than one person at a time in his whole life. And the incidental advantages, such as the information that one gets about current affairs and the history of our country, are many and valuable.

But with all these advantages my experience as teacher in high school and college has convinced me that there are some great defects in the society system.

1. One defect I have already pointed out—that debating tends to induce the advocate's spirit and not the spirit of the impartial seeker after truth. Unaided in obtaining the right view of debating, the debater comes instinctively and without question to regard winning the debate as the chief end of his work. He is apt to carry this spirit out into the world with him, and to regard every public problem as a matter of partisanship; to select first his side and then seek for arguments to support it. He goes too often to swell the ranks of those who are unswerving party men on all public questions, instead of adding to the ranks of those real thinkers and investigators who know how to maintain their independence even within party lines. And it is the ranks of these citizens, who alone are the really good citizens, that the public school wants to serve.

This defect, however, springs largely from the fact that in general the members of these debating societies receive no help from their teachers. Think of it! How many good writers should we expect to turn out simply by seeing that our boys have an opportunity and occasion to write now and then, but given no instruction, no correction, no suggestion in the art of good writing? We know perfectly well that, though our boys might gain by the practice, they would always remain far below the line of possible attainment, and that they would be inculcating into themselves many a fault which could never afterward be eradicated. In writing English we have long since got past the point of allowing that.

This, then, is the remedy called for—or at least a partial remedy—that the teachers should give themselves to these societies in earnest training and help, and our school superintendents and school committees ought to see to it that there are teachers with time and ability sufficient to give such help. The boys must remain masters of their societies; the idea that the society is their recreation and not a mere school instrument must be fostered; but training in preparation and tactful compulsion to receive such training from the teachers must be forthcoming. The boy must be taught to see that his object in debating ought not to be primarily to win

the debate, but to find out and make known the truth; that there is truth on both sides of almost every question; that as a debater it is his business to bring out whatever is true on his side and expose whatever is false on the other, leaving his opponent to do the same for his side; and he must be taught that, while his duty as speaker is that of the honest advocate, his duty to himself is to welcome the truth that his opponent discovers as much as that which he has found for himself.

Such teaching the wise teacher can largely give by showing the boy the necessity he is under of studying thoroughly his opponent's case, that he may meet his opponent's arguments where it is possible; a necessity which the untrained and uncriticised debater scarcely ever appreciates. Refutatory argument is mostly lacking in our high-school societies; the lack of it in the Harvard and Yale debates was severely criticised by Professor Percy Gardner a few years ago. It is one of the hardest things to produce in college debating classes, and we all know that the defect is pretty nearly as apparent in the discussions of men and women of mature years.

But *teach* a boy that, and what a gift you have given him! What else in his high-school course will send him farther on the way of devotion to the truth and the propagation of it?

2. The second defect of the untrained debater is like to the first, and, like it, is common everywhere, though most common with the untrained debater. That defect is the disregard for the necessity of proofs. High-school debaters, college debaters, debaters everywhere seem to think that a good, strong, "I tell you, gentlemen," is as good as the best evidence. Somebody must stand behind our young debaters as the slave stood behind triumphing Cæsar to warn him against too great pride, to thunder constantly in his ear: "Proofs, where are your proofs?" The boy must be taught that no argument is good which has not abundant evidence to support it. When honest and open-minded men differ about important questions it is not usually because they do not know the arguments and reasons offered on each side, but because they have not evidence enough. Three-fourths of our bother and difference over great

political and social questions is caused by lack of evidence. Teach the boy that when he gets out into the world he will find that it is facts which convince men, and that he is the master and controller of men's minds who offers not arguments merely, but facts and the arguments that fit those facts. The boy will never teach himself that. It is largely because he does not learn that that so many regard debating work as futile. It is the fault of the schools if it is futile: the sympathetic and interested teacher can teach the boy the necessity of facts.

The teacher can do more than this. He can make debating one of the greatest helps in teaching his boys to think. So much of our school work depends upon memory: in debating you can teach the boy to reason. The untrained debater's ideal is to find a few strong points on his side and present them effectively; you can teach him better than that. You can help him to find his material, and so teach him how to use books; you can teach him to analyze the question and see how much is necessary to prove his side; you can show him how to organize his separate points into an orderly, developed, and complete argument; you can lead him from an intellectual pecking at a question, which is all that nine hundred and ninety-nine men out of a thousand ever achieve, toward an intellectual grasp of a whole problem; you can, in short, teach him to reason, really to *think*.

I have spoken in favor of the debating society, but I think there ought to be some debating included in the regular school work. How much must depend on many circumstances. But in regular school work you could make certain of inculcating these principles of which I have spoken; you could bring into the work some who would not join the debating society; and you could use these discussions to add interest and value to your other work. What an opportunity there is for this in the teaching of history, of civics, of economics! How much additional information and insight as well as interest the participants in such debates would gain! A very large use of these discussions might be made to the double advantage of the subject in which the question lies and of training in power of expression.

If I were teaching American history, I should certainly have

debates on such topics as, "Was Adams or Jefferson the greater president?" "Has the spirit of compromise in our history been more harmful than helpful?" "Was the northern or southern view of our government the right one?" "Has the Republican party or the Democratic party done more for our country?" And there are a hundred equally good questions in all the departments I have mentioned. What invaluable reviews such discussions might be, and what supplement to the class work! Give a boy about to enter college the question, "Which was the greater writer, Homer or Virgil?" and would not he know more about the poetic power of these men than he had gained from all the linguistic study of his texts? It might even be that from the reading of Sellar's book on Virgil, or Symonds's book on the Greek poets, he would first really appreciate the fact that Homer and Virgil were poets,

Declamation.—Let us turn now for a few moments to consider work in declamation. Compared with debating, the case of declamation is both better and worse. It is better in that more of it is done in the school; it is worse in that, while untrained practice in debating, though it fails of much good, does comparatively little harm, untrained declamation works a very great amount of harm. Seventy-five per cent. of all the training in declamation given to Amherst freshmen has to be devoted to ridding them of certain faults—faults which if uncorrected will always prevent their speaking well, and faults which they never would have had if the high school had furnished them the proper training. Power in oral interpretation grows, of course, with the growth of the mind; but, so far as my observation goes, our grammar-school pupils are in some essentials better readers and reciters than our untrained high-school pupils. Until a boy is twelve or fourteen his personality, his notion of how the thing ought to be done, does not get in his way, does not get between him and his reading. He reads, if he is interested in the thing he is reading, unconsciously; with an eye single to what he is reading, and so he reads naturally, as we say, just like himself. But when the boy comes to be twelve or fourteen, especially when he becomes a member of a society,

he begins to form for himself a notion and ideal of what good speaking is. He becomes dimly conscious of a certain power in good speaking, of a certain power in his voice, which he would obtain, and, if he is left to himself, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred he gets a very false notion of how to obtain power. He comes consciously or unconsciously to think that if he talks like himself he can not get that power. And so in seeking for it he falls into a monotonous "tone," a "singing" like that of so many of our preachers, in which the natural variety of inflection, the natural subordination of the unimportant word and the relief and emphasis of the important word, directness, individuality are gone, and we get a great volume of noise, often on but two or three musical notes, which neither impress any idea upon us nor make us thrill with any feeling. That is the reason why to so many people "declamation" is a derogatory word, means "mere sound and fury, signifying nothing." Now, that is all wrong. Lack of training in the high school is largely responsible for it, and right here in the high school the fault ought to be killed, *must* be killed in those who get no further training, and in many who do; for the faults practiced into the boy during those all-important four years are often utterly ineradicable in the man. High-school training must make the effective speaker, as the lack of it is now making the ineffective speaker. There ought to be no *untrained* declamation in school or society. The boy ought to have some one to teach him that he never can speak well if he does not speak like himself; that Jones can never speak well if he tries to speak like Smith, or Smith if he tries to speak like Jones; that any real power he may acquire must be his, not somebody's else; that his good declamation is just his own natural way of conversing, raised to the *n*th power of expressiveness and impressiveness. Good public speaking, said John Churchill, is simply ennobled conversation. The boy must have somebody who can check him at every sentence with: "Jones, *you* don't talk that way. When you're coaching a man on first base you don't say, '*Get down with his arm,*' but '*Get down with his arm,*' you don't say on the football field, '*Fall on the ball,*' but '*Fall on the ball.*'"

With intelligent training, made effective by enthusiasm and a clear perception on the part of the trainer of the value of the work, the pupil will gain with every declamation in saying his say naturally, attractively, and impressively. For that is the work of declamation, to train the speaker—and everybody speaks, remember—in the use of that instrument, his voice, by means of which he is to make other men understand and believe in his beliefs, and feel as he feels. When he can take the ideas and feelings of another man, and get them into the minds and hearts of his listeners, then he will be able to give them his own ideas and feelings. And, believe me, not till then. Whatever the student may say, whatever teachers who do not teach speaking may think, the man who cannot first effectively convey the thoughts and feelings of others will not be able in later years effectively to convey his own.

Now, in what I have been saying about declamation I have regarded it as mere training toward a different end, as interpretation of another that one may eventually be able to interpret oneself. But does it not occur to some of you that oral interpretation of another's writing may be even to the adult man and woman a very noble end in itself? We study in school and college, and if we have really acquired culture of mind and soul, we read all our lives with joy the great poems and the great prose which immortal writers have given us. And surely this audience is the last in the world to deny an eager desire that our boys and girls may have this great source of life, may read good literature with understanding and with joy. For all real literature, whether prose or poetry, appeals not only to the intellect, but to the emotions, and makes its appeal, not by means of the eye only, but—something that most of us fail to realize—by means of the ear also. That is clear enough to us all when the words are what we call onomatopoeic, when the sound of the word conveys the sense. When the bees murmur in immemorial elms, when the clock in "Godiva" strikes with twelve great shocks of sound, when the echo flaps and buffets round the hills, we perceive that by their sound the words convey or suggest their sense. But all literature, poetry most of all, is in a

wide way onomatopoetic. Not words only, but phrases, sentences, paragraphs, convey or suggest ideas and feelings by their sound. We recognize that when we speak of the music of poetry, we perceive that some of its message is conveyed by tone. How much, how very much of that is lost when we use only the inward ear for our interpretation, when all the music, all the tone, comes to us strained, as it were, through the eye! The voice can do for the word what no printed letters can ever do. The trained voice alone can realize to the full that music and that rhythm which the artist wishes to use as an instrument of his message; so by the voice alone can that full message be conveyed. "A poem is not truly a poem," says Professor Corson, "until it is voiced by an accomplished reader who has adequately assimilated it." No literature can be appreciated which is not read well aloud.

If that is so, and if the power to read well can in all but the rarest cases come only through training in school and college, ought not we, who are struggling to teach an appreciation of English literature, first of all to make certain that what is now done shall not train in the wrong direction, and then to make every possible effort to train in the right direction? It is perfectly possible to add a great deal of reading and recitation to our school work even under present circumstances; and we shall do it just as soon as we come to realize that time so spent is not merely adding something that ought to be added, but actually helping us to accomplish what we are aiming at today, but what, if we are honest with ourselves, we must admit we often fail to accomplish.

I imagine that the teacher who is preparing boys for college-entrance examinations in English must admit that more often than any other. I, at least, had often to admit it when I was doing that work. These teachers have to work at times under the most hampering conditions. To teach literature to the literary-minded is hard enough, but the sane and healthy boy is not often a literary animal. And when, in defiance of all psychology and common-sense, our wise commission expects us to teach the boy to appreciate at his age such a work as Burke's *Conciliation with*

America, for instance, we may well despair. But in declamation we have a means of appealing to a boy's imagination, of teaching him literature, in which many a boy is interested, and more can be interested by a good and enthusiastic teacher. To declaim good literature well *is* to appreciate it. And what an opportunity the teacher of literature has with a boy who is willing to study a declamation and try to deliver it well! He has to learn to emphasize the right words: that means that he has to learn what words in every sentence carry the kernel of the thought, what words carry on the thought from sentence to sentence and paragraph to paragraph throughout the piece. He has to learn to grade the emphasis of sentences as a whole, of paragraphs as a whole; to learn crescendo and climax in emphasis: that means that he has to weigh the relative value and importance of the different thoughts. What a study is all this in literary construction and development! He has to learn to give the right variety of inflection and pitch to each word and sentence and paragraph: what a study that is, too, in sentence and paragraph building, in literary unity and harmony! He has to learn to give the right quality of tone to each word and sentence and paragraph: that means that he has to learn that each sentence and paragraph conveys, not only a *meaning*, but a *feeling* of its own. What a study that is of the emotional side of literature, of literature as an art! For the sake of the former of these things many a boy is willing to study the latter, and many, many times, I can assure you from my own experience, these latter things come to him as a perfect revelation. It seems to me often that I can see a boy in declamation rehearsals growing mentally and spiritually before my very eyes. As he strives to interpret with his voice he perceives thought and feeling that he has never seen before. As his voice responds more and more to his will, it conveys to him a sense of power which he has never felt. He catches fire, intellectually and emotionally, from the sound of his own voice. That rehearsal is to him a real education. So long as such rewards come to the teacher of declamation—and they come not rarely—his work may be tiring enough, but it can never be tiresome.

So it seems to me that into our English literature work we ought to welcome a great deal of oral reading and declamation. The teacher ought, as an indispensable condition to his teaching, to be himself an excellent reader, and he ought to read much to his pupils. From the works studied by the class he ought to have the members of the class read and recite as much as possible, but never without thorough training and rehearsals. *Julius Cæsar*, *Macbeth*, *The Merchant of Venice*, for instance, ought in different recitations and readings to be given nearly entire; *Ivanhoe* and *The Princess* can furnish many a declamation; such poems as *Lycidas* ought to be read aloud after very careful preparation; and even from the *Conciliation with America* selections can be made the delivery of which will give something of an appreciation that might otherwise be wholly lost. If you say that time cannot be given to this because examinations must be passed, I reply that no school authorities have any business to let college-entrance examinations prevent the best education in literature. The staff ought to be large enough to allow both kinds of work. And a second reply would be, what I have said before, that the more important thing won by this kind of work is very often a direct gain in the other kind of work.

Upon the teachers of other departments than English I should urge still more strongly in the case of declamation what I urged in the case of debates. How many splendid and illuminative declamations the teacher of history can find to brighten and intensify his work, and to give, as nothing else can give to the student, an appreciation and admiration of the great events and great men in our history! No student of American history, for instance, ought to study the battle of Gettysburg without hearing Lincoln's great speech well delivered, or read of Samuel Adams without hearing of Lodge's oration on the man of the town-meeting. Let the teacher of Cicero have Cicero's orations or parts of them delivered, well delivered, before his class; let the pupil in Virgil deliver the boat-race in the fourth book as he would the boat-race in *Tom Brown*; let the pupil in Homer deliver the Death of Hector as he would the Death of Wolfe.

That such training as I have suggested is really educative

must, I think, be apparent. But the highest education is the building of character. And here, too, I assert, training in speaking may be made to play a not unimportant part. When the boy has reached that point where he becomes possessed of a desire really to influence his associates, when he becomes ambitious to win his debates, when he is eager to acquire power in the affairs of his debating society, or class, or school, he sometimes experiences a lack of success which he finds it hard to account for. Who has not seen both boys and men that with attractive voices, with much of the grace and polish and technical skill, with much of the power of clear and vigorous thinking, that go to make the good speaker, fail to convince and move those who listen to them; while the listeners gladly submit to the sway of some harsh or weak-voiced speaker, awkward and rough in gesture and delivery, but whose thorough earnestness, whose manifest sincerity, show that his whole nature is possessed by the thing he is uttering? That situation occurs over and over again in college and in school, and therein lies the opportunity of the teacher. To show the boy that he is guilty of the fault of "fine-speaking"—if I may coin the term as a parallel to "fine-writing"—that he is insincere and unguine, that he is thinking of how he speaks rather than what he speaks—this to help build that boy's character. For you shall be able to show him that he is speaking to those who know him through and through, that they are testing always what he says by what he is, that he will never make them think and feel what he does not really and intensely think and feel, that he must make the choice between the success of *Æschines* and the success of *Demosthenes*. "You," said the great Greek to his rival, "you made them say, 'How well he speaks!' but I made them say, 'Let us march against Philip!'"

Last spring District Attorney Jerome said to me, as he passed on his way to the platform from which he with others was to address a great audience: "I do not see why it is that because I can do one sort of thing fairly well, people think I can do another wholly different kind of thing." He meant that he did not see why, because people though he would be a good district

attorney, they should think he could make a good after-dinner speech. But when it came to the test, when the others, men of reputation as speakers, had made their best efforts, Mr. Jerome alone really moved the audience, really stirred their feelings and gave an impulse to their wills. For, where the others had manifestly endeavored to be eloquent, he alone had seemed to be possessed, not *of* but *by* the thing he had to say, and uttered it with such plain, sincere directness, that in his words was felt the very soul of the man. It is the Jeromes, the Parkhursts, the Roosevelts, whom as speakers we ought to hold up as models to our boys; and so shall we be doing something toward making our boys what the Jeromes and Parkhursts and Roosevelts are as men; so perhaps shall we now and then find ourselves *hewing* one of "those grand sticks of human timber, all afire with holy indignation," of whom Dr. Parkhurst speaks; "men who feel iniquity keenly, and are not afraid to stand up and hammer it unflinchingly and remorselessly, and never get tired of hammering it;" and so prove, indeed, "instruments of God."

In closing, let me summarize briefly what I have tried to show—that there is too little work in oral expression in our high schools; that it is very little when compared with the work in what are recognized to be important educative subjects; that it is very little when compared with the work in written expression, though the demand of life for good talking is far greater than that for good writing; that the ideal of the high school, training for good citizenship, really *includes* training to speak well. I have urged that such training must include much practice in vocal calisthenics, in debating, declaiming; and that even in our overcrowded curricula this can be included to the large benefit of what is already there. I have suggested some ways in which this work should be done. And I have especially emphasized the dangers that lie in the prevalent condition in the schools of untrained debating and declaiming; the danger that untrained debating may cultivate the partisan spirit, while the pupil fails to learn how he must seek the truth if he is ever to find it; the danger, rather the certainty, that in untrained decla-

mation he will acquire ineradicable faults that will forever prevent his speaking really well.

I have tried to show that such training is training for the demands of everyday life; that it has real educative and culture value; that, indeed, conducted by the wise teacher, it has value in the building of character.

In what I have said I feel certain I have not been extravagant, but I know that you may think so. I am content if I have in any degree made clearer the necessity for a strong effort on the part of the high schools, that their graduates shall not be hampered in their growth as men and women, in their effectiveness as citizens and neighbors, because they have not been trained in the most common, constant and inevitable mode of expression.

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THE AIM AND SCOPE OF CIVICS.

THAT civics has not yet "found itself" is no cause for wonder. The word is only about fifteen years old and the thing is even younger. The crudities of youth alone would prevent civics from being as yet a definite and scientifically arranged body of knowledge. But another circumstance retards its crystallization. The dominant theme of civics is citizenship, and "citizenship" is a term so broad and comprehensive that it is extremely difficult to assign to it a sharp and distinct meaning. Our ideas about civics cannot be clear while our notions about citizenship are blurred. When we analyze our citizenship, we find that it is implicated in almost every human relation. There is a citizenship of the home, a citizenship of the church—St. Paul speaks of citizens of the household of God, a citizenship of the market-place, a citizenship of the polling-booth. Good citizenship consists in right living in all these relations. To train for good citizenship—which, we are told in season and out of season, is the chief function of the school—is therefore a most ambitious task. To train for good citizenship is to train for domestic virtues, for spiritual graces, for social decorum, for industrial rectitude, for political righteousness. Now, if "civics" is the name of the subject that is to furnish this plenary training, beyond doubt a great deal of heterogeneous matter must be included under that term.

Evidently there is need for precision and clarification in this matter of civics. We may begin with the word "citizenship" which is pressed into service so often. Such an excellent phrase as "training for citizenship" should not be permitted to degenerate into cant because of its vagueness and thus become a sweet morsel for the educational demagogue. Citizenship, when referred to as the subject-matter of civics, ought to be rigidly delimited to political citizenship. When we say that the school should prepare for good citizenship, it will conduce to clearness of purpose if we stipulate that the training in question

shall refer to the political side. If we will make systematic and prolonged attempts in the schools to prepare our pupils for an intelligent and conscientious performance of the political duties which await them, we may succeed in our aim, and if we should succeed on a large scale in such an undertaking, the phrase "training for citizenship" would have a vitality which it certainly does not now possess. Let civics then be focused upon the citizenship of the polling-booth, and let its aim be to prepare for an intelligent and conscientious discharge of the political duties which devolve upon a citizen.

What is involved in such an aim? What is it to be prepared for one's political duty? I suppose, if a man is to discharge his political duty well, he must (1) be imbued with the spirit of the political institutions of his country; (2) understand the machinery of the government under which he lives; (3) possess precise knowledge respecting current political problems; (4) cherish sound notions respecting questions of political morality. If his equipment is satisfactory in all these respects it may be predicted confidently, providing his will and conscience are what they ought to be, that his political action will be what it ought to be. If he is palpably defective in any of the above four points, his political conduct may easily go wide of the mark. Instruction in civics, then, should cover these four points: (1) it should impart the spirit of our political institutions; (2) it should explain our political organization; (3) it should acquaint the learner with those facts and principles that underlie the great political questions of the day; (4) it should teach a robust political morality.

1. *The spirit.*—What is it to impart the spirit of an institution? How, for example, may a class in civics acquire the true spirit of the most significant of all American political institutions, the institution of democracy, or majority rule? Let the class drink deeply of the knowledge of the subject; let it learn as much and think as much as possible about democracy. Let it dwell upon the theme until the history of democracy is known, until its purposes are clearly perceived, until its nature and attributes are appreciated. To understand the dignity and

strength of democracy the learner must go back to the time when the voice of the people first began to be heard among men, and must trace through the centuries the growth of the democratic principle, bringing the account up to the period when the people became the real masters of government throughout the civilized world. Such a story, properly unfolded, would engender a respect for popular government, for it would show that democracy is a persistent and indestructible force in human affairs. Respect of this kind is entirely wholesome and desirable. For weal or for woe, democracy has become the greatest force in politics, and there is not the slightest reason to believe that its power will ever decline, and no good can come from underestimating its strength or distrusting its permanency. The seamy side of democracy should be exposed. It should be shown that majorities can be more cruel and unjust than monarch ever dared to be, and that the cruelty and injustice of a majority are more intolerable and grievous than the cruelty and injustice of a despot. The dangers and enemies of democracy should be pointed out and its archenemy, the demagogue, should be so fully described that in after years the learner would not fail to detect one of those creatures in whatever guise he should appear. Most important of all, it ought to be made plain in the civics class that, if democracy is to be an instrument of happiness to mankind, the individuals composing a state must lead worthy lives. The great truth that citizenship in a democracy means personal responsibility, personal service, personal sacrifice, should be presented in a score of ways, and should be dwelt upon until it sinks deep into the recesses of the heart and mind, and becomes a conviction, and the pupil feels that the greatest contribution he can make to the cause of good government is to order his own life aright. When a pupil has attained to this mastery of the subject, when he knows the past of democracy, when he appreciates its aims, when he is aware of its weaknesses as well as of its virtues, and when he realizes his personal responsibility as a citizen of a democracy, then has he caught the spirit of democracy, and the civics work, to this extent has been worth while.

Democracy, of course, is only one of the great themes. Almost equally important are the topics of representation, "checks and balances," constitutionalism, federalism, local autonomy, civil liberty. These are the foundation stones upon which our political fabric is reared, and a liberal allotment of time and space to these at the outset begets an appreciation of the leading ideas of free government, and this appreciation vitalizes the work in all its subsequent stages. Without an understanding of the underlying principles—mark the word—of our government its spirit cannot be known, and without the spirit the form is a cold and lifeless thing. It is of the highest importance, then, that our instruction in civics should lay the foundation with the greatest care and patience. A dictionary definition of a democracy will not suffice; a line or a paragraph on representative government will not elucidate the great principles of representation; a lesson on the formation of the constitution may fail utterly to teach what constitutional government is.

2. *The form.*—A knowledge of the machinery of government, especially of the machinery of the American government, is indispensable. If our state and federal relations are to be preserved, voters must understand them. But political organization is not the only, or even the most important, element in civics. The skeleton of the body politic should be studied, but not at the expense of the arteries and nerves and tissues. Here is where our teaching of civics is often at fault. We teach civil government and call it civics. We devote our time to departments and bureaus, to offices and officers, to functions and functionaries. We have our pupils learn all the parts of all the governments from the township up to the nation, and in the acquisition of this knowledge they come to look upon civics as the driest, the most unprofitable, and the most stupid of all their studies. And their impressions are often just. The end and aim of much of the instruction that passes under the name of civics is to teach the facts of the political organization, and when this is the guiding principle civics must be insufferably prosy and unprofitable.

3. *Current political topics.*—The political questions of the hour

relate to taxation, to the currency, to international policies, to colonization, to banking, to the tariff, to industry on the capitalistic side, to industry from the view-point of the laborer, to penology, to the police power, to the sphere and functions of government, to municipal betterment, to reform in expressing the popular will. Civil government of the orthodox type either avoids these topics altogether or deals very warily and stingily with them. But civics is more than civil government. Civics professes to prepare for intelligent voting; it must therefore take up the questions upon which voters are invited to express an opinion and give these questions a serious and adequate treatment.

Doubts may arise as to the wisdom of discussing in the classroom such themes as strikes and trusts and the currency. It may be thought that these subjects are too closely identified with practical politics to be allowed a place in civics. There is really no inherent difficulty in this direction, if the teacher knows the subject and is capable of looking at a question in a fair and just way. It was my privilege once to be present at the hearing of a recitation in a high school when the subject of the lesson was the tariff. A presidential campaign was raging at the time, and the tariff was the supreme issue. The school was located in a manufacturing region, and the community was deeply agitated by the discussions in the press and on the hustings. The lesson had hardly begun before it was very apparent that the class was divided into rampant free traders and rampant protectionists. Nothing was discoverable, however, as to the views of the teacher. Without even the appearance of partisanship, he went about his work in that straightforward matter-of-fact way which is characteristic of one searching for truth. The text-book used by the class stated the facts and arguments connected with the tariff in a scientific manner, and these were studied by teacher and pupils in a scientific spirit. The pupils learned the leading truths about the history and purpose and effect of tariffs. Some of these truths were, of course, against the free traders and some were against the protectionists. The free traders learned what was to be said on the protectionists'

side, and the protectionists learned the arguments of the free traders. Throughout the lesson the teacher's fair-mindedness did not desert him for an instant, and this candid, unbiased attitude won success for the recitation. The lesson may not have resulted in any conversions from one side of the question to the other, but it did result in an increase of knowledge and soberness and clearness of thought.

If our civic teaching will do this much, if it will equip the learners with a substantial outfit of knowledge relating to current political topics, and will train them to think clearly about these topics, we need not worry about the voting. Whether my pupils in civics will vote the Democratic ticket or the Republican ticket is a matter of no concern to me, but it is a matter of concern to me that they know something about the subjects upon which they vote and that they put into their vote at least as much thought as they are accustomed to bestow upon matters of equal importance. If I shrink from these practical questions of the hour and leave my pupils ignorant of the very facts which voters must have if they are to vote rationally, I shrink from a most important part of my task. It is true, these live political topics, like live electric wires, are dangerous and must be handled with great caution; yet they must be handled, and, like the expert electrician, the teacher should have knowledge and should exercise care.

4. *Political morality.*—There is hardly a subject in politics that has not its ethical side, and if this side is neglected the teacher is losing his greatest opportunity. Constantly we find men sinning politically, not because their hearts are bad or because their wills are weak, but because their ethical standards are low, and these are low because they have never been elevated by education. "He acts as well as he knows how." Men, for example, sometimes give bribes because they have no cogent appreciation of the flagitiousness of bribery; because they have never clearly apprehended the grim-visaged truth that the bribe not only debauches him that gives and him that takes, but that it poisons the whole body of society. A little enlightenment in political ethics will often improve the political conduct. Will

such enlightenment *always* improve the political conduct? Will instruction on the ethical side of political subjects generally result in the improvement of the political conduct of the learner? No educational question can have more interest than this: What is the answer to it? If the instructor in civics is himself an ethical success, he may saturate his work with morality and feel confident of a reward. If he is himself a bad or an indifferent citizen, any seeds of ethical instruction sown by him will probably fall among the thorns and be choked. A moral precept must have a sanction. In the public schools, under our system, the sanction of religion cannot be combined with maxims of conduct, and the only available sanction must come from the teacher himself—from his life, from his character, from his citizenship. If the teacher of civics is an able man, his work will be vivified by the emotion and enthusiasm of his own lofty soul and his precepts, having the sanction of incarnate character, will lodge in the consciences of his pupils and result in right action. If the teacher is not the incarnation of his teachings, if he cannot give the sanction of his own character to his precepts, he might as well abandon the idea of ethical culture, for his maxims will be "moral diagrams" and nothing more; and if he is compelled to eliminate the moral element, he might as well go the rest of the way and close the civics book altogether. To vote right requires a happy union of head and heart, and if instruction in civics does not effect this union, as likely as not its chief result will be to prepare many of the learners for more successful and intelligent careers as public rogues.

S. E. FORMAN.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

THE announcement of a new book on education used to be of importance. It meant that someone had something to say. Times have changed and now

A NEW BOOK ON
EDUCATION

the new book makes no stir and but little comment. Most of the educational press reproduce the comment kindly furnished in printed form by the discerning publishers. Instead of having something to say, it too often means that the author had time to spare and has made a book. The *clientes* of the publishing house affix to a general testimonial their names, the disarrangement of alphabetical symbols that is supposed to indicate prominence, and the book is ready for the market. It must in general tone and content conform to the prevailing taste, for the writer of educational fiction, like his brother in general fiction, must take advantage of the popular demand and imitate those who have been successful. The promoter of general fiction depends upon lavish advertising and has not the opportunity of his educational brother who is sure of a circulation of many thousands if he can only manage the boards that control the Teachers' Reading Circles in the various states. There are many books which seem to be written only for this purpose, and our sympathies go out to the poor teachers who are obliged to wander for forty or more days through an educational Sahara relieved by only too few oases. There are too many so-called educational books on these lists. A standard work of general literature would be far more valuable—something that will enlarge the horizon of the teacher and that will give him a new outlook upon life.

But the object of this comment was not to criticise the quality of the output of educational literature, although such a task is alluring, but rather to draw attention to a new book on education which contains much sound philosophy expressed in a terse, epigrammatic, homely fashion.¹ Better than all the letters of Elizabeth or the confessions of a wife expressed in an epistolary fashion are the letters purporting to have been written by one John Graham, pork-packer of Chicago, to his son Pierrepont, a student at Harvard. One cannot call them Chesterfieldian, but they are modern and are equally valuable when it is taken into consideration how the standard of life has moved. In the first letter Pierrepont has been settled at Harvard by his anxious mother, and the self-made merchant tells him what will be expected of him. This is one of the best of the series and most interesting to those who are engaged in the work of education. In his homely way he illustrates

¹ *Letters from a Self-Made Merchant to His Son.* By GEORGE HORACE LORIMER, Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

what seems to him to be the value of a college education, and from that standpoint a better apology has not been written. "Anything that trains a boy to think and to think quick pays; anything that teaches a boy to get the answer before the other fellow gets through biting the pencil pays." Where have we in modern literature a better statement of the relationship and responsibility of the college and the boy than, "College doesn't make fools; it develops them. A fool will turn out a fool whether he goes to college or not, though he'll probably turn out a different sort of a fool?"

The story of Stanley Whitaker who had been sent by his indulgent father to private schools, dancing schools, colleges, universities, and then to Oxford, is an illustration of what most of us have seen in this country of rapid changes in family fortunes. The sudden death of his father and the shrinkage of the estate made the young man turn to Graham for aid, and we shall let the merchant tell the story:

I had a talk with Stan about what he was going to do, but some ways he didn't strike me as having the making of a good private of industry, let alone a captain, so I started in to get him a job that would suit his talents. Got him in a bank, but while he knew more about the history of banking than the president, and more about political economy than the board of directors, he couldn't learn the difference between a fiver that the government turned out and one that was run off on a hand press in a Hasted street basement. Got him a job on a paper, and while he knew six different languages and all the facts about the Arctic regions, and the history of dancing from the days of Old Adam down to those of Old Nick, he couldn't write up a satisfactory account of the Ice-Men's Ball. Could prove that two and two made four by trigonometry and geometry but couldn't learn to keep books; was thick as thieves with all the high-toned poets, but couldn't write a good, snappy, merchantable street-car ad.; knew a thousand diseases that would take a man off before he could blink, but couldn't sell a thousand dollar tontine policy; knew the lives of our presidents as well as if he had been raised with them, but couldn't place a set of the Library of the Fathers of the Republic, though they were offered on little easy payments that made them come as easy as borrowing them from a friend. Finally I hit on what seemed to be just the right thing. I figured out that any fellow who had such a heavy stock of information on hand, ought to be able to job it out to good advantage, and so I got him a place teaching. But it seemed that he'd learned so much about the best way of teaching boys that he told his principal right on the jump that he was doing it all wrong, and that made him sore; and he knew so much about the dead languages, which was what he was hired to teach, that he forget he was handling live boys, and as he couldn't tell it all to them in the regular time, he kept them after hours, and that made them sore and put Stan out of a job again. The last I heard of him he was writing articles on "Why Young Men Fail," and making a success of it, because failing was the one subject on which he was practical.

And so the old man goes on, writing out of the fulness of experience in the world of affairs. As a companion picture to Stan Whitaker I wish I could give the history of Graham's experience with Jim Durham who made a place for himself despite the disadvantages surrounding him. It was the

experience with such a chap as Jim that made Graham say: "That's where I caught the connection between a college education and business. I've always made it a rule to buy brains, and I've learned now that the better trained they are the faster they find reasons for getting their salaries raised. The fellow who hasn't had the training may be just as smart, but he's apt to paw the air when he's reaching for ideas."

The limitations of space prevent further illustrations from the list of Graham's acquaintances and further aphorisms expressed in his homely but telling fashion. This is no idle book. It is full of lessons that will be of value to boys; its meaning is not on the surface, but grows by contemplation, and it ought to be included in the educational books of the year. This is a view of the world into which our boys in the high schools are about to go; the qualities that made for the right kind of success are pointed out and the boy has before him a standard of conduct; in fact, it is a book on moral education by reading which the boy becomes moral without realizing the transition. It teaches by suggestion and example, and is therefore founded on sound educational principles. One instinctively wishes that he knew the big, bluff, sensible, level-headed, just, kind-hearted, and successful John Graham of the Stock Yards.

To TEST the feeling of his own faculty upon the advisability of the proposed two-years' college course, President Butler of Columbia sent out a

THE TWO-YEARS' circular letter in which were the following questions:
COLLEGE COURSE

1. Should the basis for admission to the professional schools of law, medicine, applied science, and education be the completion of a secondary-school course, or the completion of a four-years' college course, or, finally, the completion of a shortened college course?

2. If you prefer the last, to what extent should the college course be shortened?

3. Should any degree, or other academic designation, be granted for the completion of a college course less than four years in length? If so, what degree or designation?

4. Is the existing arrangement by which a college senior may take the first year of a professional course and count it toward the degree of A.B., satisfactory as a permanent policy?

There were 121 responses. These Professor Munroe Smith systematized, and has published in the *Columbia University Quarterly* an article in which he tries to indicate the general opinion of the members of the faculty on this important question.

For admission to all the professional schools of those who intend to seek professional degrees the almost unanimous opinion is that a college course of two or more years' duration or a course of equal duration in a scientific school of collegiate rank, or equivalent examinations, should be required. In regard to the curtailment of the academic course, a large majority of the faculty hold that the present course is too extended if the students are about to study for the learned professions. The law faculty favors the preservation of the

undergraduate course as it now exists, the medical professors lean to a reduction of one year, and the instructors at Teachers College and the scientific schools prefer the suggestion of President Butler to shorten the course by two years.

The answers to the third question showed that most of the faculty are opposed to granting the A.B. degree for less than three years of undergraduate work, and very few favor the bestowal of any award at the end of the two years, except possibly a certificate, such as given at the University of Chicago, in which the successful student receives the designation of "associate in arts." The most conservative faculties are those of law and medicine, and there is not a very strong sentiment for any radical changes.

It was in 1843 that public classical instruction was inaugurated in Providence, R. I., and so it was fitting that the recent meeting of the
*SIXTY YEARS OF
SECONDARY
EDUCATION* Alumni Association of the Classical High School should celebrate in a reunion the sixtieth anniversary. One of the most interesting features of the gathering was the introduction of Messrs. John Morris, James Shaw and Richmond P. Everett, of the Class of 1843, to their old teacher, Professor Albert Harkness, the classical veteran who has attained the age of four-score, and still is hale and vigorous. This reunion of students with their old teacher was happily brought about by Mr. William T. Peck, the present principal. It was a matter of great regret that Mr. Samuel Thurber, of the Girls' High School, Boston, was detained at home by illness. Had he been present, every living principal teacher would have had the opportunity of renewing acquaintance with the old pupils. The expansion of the privileges of high-school education may be seen on the merely material side in the transition from the \$8,000 building of 1843 to the present beautiful \$200,000 structure. It was a truly representative gathering of members of the learned professions, judges, lawyers, doctors, clergymen, and men prominent in educational and business enterprises, who met to testify to the value of secondary education in preparing boys to be efficient members of society.

BOOK REVIEWS.

SOME RECENT SPANISH PLAYS.

Tilles's Don Gil de las Calzas Verdes. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by B. P. BOURLAND. New York: Henry Holt & Co. Pp. i-xxvii, 1-118 (text), 119-44 (notes), 145-98 (vocabulary).

FRAY GABRIEL TÉLLEZ, better known to literary fame as Tirso de Molina, is one of the notable figures of the classical period of Spanish letters, and is a shining dramatic light that is not thrown into the shade even when standing by the side of the great luminaries of the period—Lope and Calderón. He possessed a marvelous literary facility, and like those prodigies of nature, although fortunately in a smaller degree, he is credited with an appalling dramatic output, some three or four hundred plays being put down to his authorship. Such a mass of letters—even if only a fraction of them have appeared in print—is a pretty heavy load under which to ride down to posterity, and Tirso himself has had to rest for a spell by the wayside, in partial neglect, to recuperate after the high reputation he enjoyed during his day. Yet certain of his plays claim without dispute the first rank in the classic literary roster of Spain, and the work and personality of the author cannot be ignored by the well-informed student of Spanish letters.

In view of these facts, and considering the lack of a good available edition of Tirso, Professor Bourland has done us a distinct service in presenting us with his scholarly edition of our author's well-known and characteristic play, *Don Gil de las Calzas Verdes*. The play is not a difficult one for readers who have gotten a fair start in the language, while it is a good specimen of the classic style and of the manifold kinds of dramatic verse structure. The theme turns on the ingenuity displayed by a deserted wife in following up her absconding lord, and finally in reconquering his wayward affections by means of a clever rôle in a man's attire. Thus disguised she thwarts at every turn her husband's amorous projects in fresh fields, and even succeeds in supplanting him in the affections he would fain inspire in uneligitable objects; and by her Protean skill in passing from the rôle of one sex to another she effectually eludes and baffles her pursuers, who know of the mysterious character only by the distinctive *calzas verdes* of his (or rather *her*) attire, until when at the proper time the imbroglio is properly cleared up.

The editor shows a thorough knowledge of his subject, and a full working bibliography of reference matter is appended to the introduction. The latter is very good, and, for the purpose of imparting information of practical interest to the student about the life and work of the author, leaves little to be desired. But it seems singular that in the summary of Tirso's work no mention should be made of one of the most celebrated plays of the Spanish stage, and one commonly associated with Tirso's authorship—the *Burlador de Sevilla y Convidado de Piedra*, the prototype and starting-point of the long line of modern *Don Juan* relationships as expressed in literature, music, and art. True, the authorship of this play in favor of Tirso has been disputed, with some air of plausibility, on behalf of Lope or Calderón by some critics of good

standing. But until the latter make good their claim beyond doubt it would seem just not to deprive Tirso of the distinction of even possible paternity in the matter. Indeed, Cotarelo y Mori himself, in the excellent study to which the Editor acknowledges his obligations for the subject matter of his introduction, does not deny Tirso the authorship of the *Burlador*, or even seriously question it (cf. pp. 56, 115-121, 161).

As in his preface the editor mentions the names of several eminent persons as his literary advisors in the preparation of the work, it may seem presumptuous to raise any objection to the arrangement of the notes and vocabulary. But we venture to think that these are mutually inconsistent with each other, whatever be the class of students for which the book is specially aimed. If it is intended to meet the needs of elementary or first year learners—for whom, parenthetically, we deem such a work quite disqualified—the notes could have very profitably been fuller, introducing the explanation of occasional difficult passages with which even advanced students might find trouble. The process in question the editor avoids quite consistently throughout. As to unusual literary forms the editor says nothing about examples of metathesis occurring in the plural of the direct imperative with an enclitic pronoun, of which there are several examples in the play; e. g., *tenelda* (for *tenedla*), *persuadilde*, *ponelde*. But perhaps this detail would not be considered a necessary object for the editor's solicitude. Yet the great body of students whose preparation has been from brief grammar courses would probably know nothing of the subject in question.

If the book were intended, as seems more likely, for better-prepared students—those past the point of desperate struggle with the linguistic difficulties at the expense of proper literary appreciation—we think the vocabulary is quite unnecessary, as it takes up space for a mass of simple terms of lexicography for which the ordinary dictionary is entirely sufficient; while the rare terms or peculiar expressions ordinarily occurring only once or twice in the course of the play could have been put in the notes, thereby enabling the latter to have a greater extension in other helpful directions.

The presswork and general appearance of the book are attractive, as are all the volumes of the series to which it belongs. Misprints are few. There are a couple of incorrect references in the chapter on the meter (p. xvii, iii, 13, 10, for ii, 13, 10; p. xviii, iii, 7, 1-4, for ii, etc.). In the vocabulary under *hábito* reference is made to a desirable note which has been left out. Strange to say, the body of the text is not preceded by a list of the cast of characters, an omission not to be justified by any practical considerations of convenience and clearness for the reader. The notes display abundant erudition and thoroughness in the explanation of the proper names and unusual or obscure expressions recognized by the editor as coming within his province. For those qualified to study profitably the dramatic specimens of the *siglo de oro* the edition will be highly commended.

Gil y Zárate's Guzmán el Bueno. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by SYLVESTER PRIMER. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. i-xx, 1-135 (text), 137-54 (notes, etc.).

THE story of *Guzmán el Bueno* is one of the most dramatic, not only in Spanish annals, but in those of any land. Unswerving devotion to duty can hardly have a finer model or persevere under more grievous temptations. For this doughty mediæval Castilian warrior preferred to witness the death of his beloved son at the hands of a perfidious enemy rather than save the life of his son on the terms of surrendering to

the besieging infidels the town whose defense had been committed to his care. It is but natural that the memory of such rare heroism should have been cherished with enthusiastic admiration by Guzmán's countrymen, and that it should have woven itself deep into the national legends, becoming a favorite topic for treatment at the hands of poets and dramatists.

The most successful treatment of this theme that has yet appeared is the above play of Gil y Zárate, in four acts, a representative of Spanish romanticism of the last century. While the author is far from being a dramatist of the first rank, the present play is the best of his numerous productions and one whose well-deserved popularity will long insure its author against oblivion. For Gil y Zárate's *Guzmán* presents us a stirring theme expressed with high dramatic skill and in a singularly lucid style. The play can be read without further purpose than to form an acquaintance with an interesting specimen of Spanish versification in its many varieties, or as an introductory study to the more elaborate classical models.

The present edition is quite satisfactory. The introduction is good, and the chapter on versification gives a brief but sufficient statement of the main principles underlying a correct apprehension of the verse structure of the play, with an analysis of its different verse elements. On account of the comparative simplicity of the language of the play, the editor's task in the preparation of needful notes has been lightened. He has even furnished us some meanings for which the ordinary dictionary quite suffices; e. g., *con ciento* (185), *tener á raya* (196), *por dicha* (523), *privado* (580), *por fuerza* (2179), and others. But the student will generally appreciate the helps given, and in the matter of these we think it well to err—if err one must—on the side of generosity to the learner.

Carrión y Asa's Zaragüeta. Edited, with Notes and Vocabulary, by G. C. HOWLAND. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co. Pp. 1-73 (text), 79-115 (notes, exercises, and vocabulary).

This is a bright, interesting play, all the more to be appreciated because of the dearth of such material in Spanish prose drama suitable for early reading. In the present edition this comedy is a desirable accession to the reading matter of first-year courses. A group of useful composition exercises is appended based on specified pages of the text.

The editorial workmanship is far from being above reproach. The notes are conspicuously lacking in consistent helps, although in diagnoses of this nature doctors are always apt to disagree. But if a book is accompanied by notes and vocabulary, it is intended, presumably, to be complete for its purpose. Such is not the case in the present instance. Worse still, the difficulties ignored are not always to be solved by reference to current dictionaries, and the teacher must himself supply the defect, if it be supplied at all. This shifting of responsibility from the editor to the teacher, however well qualified—or better—the latter may be, seems to us quite unauthorized, and we wonder whether in a well-edited text, apparently intended for students in the early stages of the language, the following expressions should not receive notice either in the notes or under an appropriate heading in the vocabulary: 14, 11 and 35, 18, *el mejor día* (= *el día menos pensado*, "some fine day"); 15, 11, *¿me no me la pega* (= "he doesn't fool me"); 23, 5, *vuelta á* (= "there he is back at"); 33, 24, *salimos con esas* (= "is that all?"); 36, 11, *y qué tal* (= "how goes it?" "how are you?"); 38, 26, *vaya si me lo pagarán* (= "certainly, of course, they will pay me") does not per-

haps offer any more difficulties than *vaya si me paga* (35, 4), which the editor explains, but a cross-reference to this as to other cases would have made for completeness; 39, 2, *esto y lo otro y lo de más allá* ("this, that, and the other thing"); it may seem captious to point out that the student might not readily understand from the vocabulary definition of "penny" that *cuartos* (38, 21) is colloquial for *dinero*; 40, 10, *¿los pies de usted*, does the student appreciate here, without his attention being called to the subject, that Don Hermógenes (whose name, by the way, does not occur in the cast of characters) is addressing *Dolores* (since another person is present) with a characteristic Spanish expression of courtesy from men to women? 44, 9, *no estoy en caja* (i. e., *en buen estado de salud*); 50, 22, *lo de siempre* ("the same old story"); 51, 23, *ahora tengo que hacer* ("just now I'm busy"); 56, 14, *allá ustedes* ("that's your affair," "look out"); the note to *no faltaba más* (10, 25) might be profitably applied to the second occurrence of the expression, 56, 30; 69, 12, *le da por los médicos* (i. e., "his mania is turned against the doctors"). The editor gives no explanation of (40, 18), *qué has de molestar* ("the idea of your being in the way!"), and (47, 9) *qué has de ser feo* ("the idea of your being ugly!"), although he doubtless suggests one in his note to *qué has de estar malo* (10, 32). For the dubious term *silla volante* (53, 5) we think the editor might have supplied something more satisfactory in the way of explanation than the noncommittal "movable" (cf. vocabulary, *volante*). Most chairs are more or less "movable," while the student would know what modern object, if any, is designated by this term, which is defined in the large dictionaries as a kind of cart or a "sedan-chair"—a sense that clearly does not apply to the text. If by it the author means a common chair as distinguished from a *sillón*, the editor might have avoided some perplexity by informing us of the fact.

The relationship of notes to vocabulary is ill-defined and irregular, the former containing matter that could be left to the latter, while lacking matter, as we have seen, which properly belongs to it; e. g., *colcha* (2, 3) is omitted from the vocabulary; *calditos* (33, 7), with a simple meaning, is given in the notes when one might look for it in the vocabulary under *caldo*. Consistently *sopitas* (26, 13) is omitted from the vocabulary under *sopo*; likewise from the notes; while *fuelle* as "dish" occurs in both vocabulary and notes. Examples of this uneven arrangement might be multiplied.

These omissions, coupled with the irregularities before mentioned, constitute, to our way of thinking, a blemish in the value of the edition. But we do not care to press this point, since some shortcomings are inevitable and perfection can hardly be expected while standards are so diversified.

The following misprints are noted: in the text (30, 3) *reconcimiento*, (33, 18) *atreví* for *atreví*; in the vocabulary (p. 105) *huevos molles* for *huevos moles*.

Echegaray's Ó Locura Ó Santidad. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by GEDDES AND JOSSELYN. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. Pp. i-ix, 1-102 (text), 105-15 (notes).

We confess to a sense of disappointment in this play, despite the literary rank of the author and the learned attempts of the editors to make out a strong case in his favor. We think that the only excuse justifying the present volume is the extreme paucity of material in Spanish prose drama that can be well adapted to the use of students, and we are not sure that even this excuse has been fully met. The editors sum up well the merit of Echegaray in the phrase: "his pieces interest without amusing" (Introduction, p. vi), which is a charitable judgment; for the element of

"interest" often needs reinforcing by means of a modicum of conscious effort on the part of the reader. We wonder whether the present play is of a kind that will prove generally effective in maintaining student interest. The subject deals with the evolution of highly-wrought scruples which drive their owner to insanity when he discovers that his reputed parents are not his actual ones, and that consequently he has no valid claims, through the rights of heredity, upon the wealth and the high social position he enjoys. It does not appear that in the long run either will be seriously compromised by the real facts of the case coming out; while the melodramatic attitude of the leading character, and his insistence upon blighting his daughter's future by putting obstacles in the way of her realizing her ideal of happiness, will not appeal to the average American common-sense. Nor do we think that the dramatic process of this play reveals anything distinctly national or instructive by way of compensation for the depressing influence that runs through it.

The text is easy reading, and the book is satisfactorily made up. It is surprising that the editors gave no meaning to the idiomatic expression *parece mentira* (= "it's incredible," "doesn't seem possible"), which occurs three times in the play and is twice mentioned for the benefit of the *si* prefixed to it, nor (20, 14) to *no faltaba más* (= "that's the last straw, that caps the climax," *no cabe más*). Neither expression is ordinarily a dictionary term. There is a misprint 16, 5, *cómo cómo*.

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A Short Grammar of Classical Greek, with Tables for Repetition. By DR. A. KÆGLI, Professor at Zürich University. Authorized English Edition by JAMES A. KLEIST. St. Louis, Mo.: B. Herder, 1902. Pp. 240. Price, \$1.25.

Greek Exercise Book, Comprising Translations and Reading Exercises. By DR. A. KÆGLI. Authorized English Edition by JAMES A. KLEIST. Part I. St. Louis: B. Herder, 1902. Pp. 153. Price, 80 cents.

THE method represented in these two books is about the same as the one advocated by Professor Bennett for Latin, *i. e.*, the laws of the Greek language are grouped into a systematical, though short, grammar, while the accompanying "Exercise Book" gives copious sentences for translation into Greek as well as into English, always following, as a whole at least, the order of the grammar.

The grammar is arranged according to the usual plan of scientific grammars. It is, of course, condensed, as the title indicates, and we are told in the preface that the author, a man of undisputed renown among the philologists of the Old World, has taken every possible care to present only those formations and syntactical facts which will really occur in the classics read most generally in the course of the study of Greek. Thus, to quote only one instance, the dual, whose prominence in the smallest "Beginner's Books" has probably been a puzzle to many teachers, has almost entirely been dropped in this grammar, which, in the original German, went through twelve editions in ten years. A list of verbs, the conjugation of which contains irregularities, is added as an appendix, arranged in neat synoptical tables, and followed by an abridgment of the chief rules of syntax with such a conciseness and lucidity that it must satisfy even those to whom the "Syntax" of this "Short Grammar" should not seem short enough.

The "Exercise Book," too, has many peculiarities. To allow the formation of easy sentences from the very beginning, it gives the present indicative of the verbs in *-ω*, but, although the use of the verb is gradually widened, the main stress is laid on practicing the different parts of speech in the order in which they follow one another in systematic grammars. From the order of the grammar, however, one departure has been made which deserves mentioning, since it will no doubt find the heartiest approval of all teachers of Greek. Not the first declension is treated in the first place, but the second. Professor Kaegi begins with practicing barytones, which he supposes the teacher to explain in the following order, *λόγος δήμος, ἀγγελος*, each word representing a class. Then follow oxytones, then the neuters, similarly graded, and at last the feminine nouns in *-ος*. Thus the difficulties of accent, commonly experienced by all students, must be overcome with little trouble, and the way is paved to the more intricate first declension. Only after these two declensions are entirely mastered, adjectives are introduced.

No rules of grammar, save a short appendix of three pages containing "Some Rules of Syntax," no tables of declensions or conjugations, are to be found in the "Exercise Book." The word-lists, too — a masterpiece of arrangement, and evidently the result of careful selection — are separated from the exercises and placed at the end of the book. The short alphabetical dictionary is of a peculiar kind. The words are not accompanied by their Greek or English equivalent, but by a number which refers the student to that paragraph of the vocabulary where the word occurs, thus forcing him to repeat it always in the same place and in the same surroundings in which he learned it first.

The two books are herewith sufficiently characterized. Their appearance on this side of the Atlantic after their triumphs in the schools of many nationalities in Europe may be styled an innovation, since they differ so essentially from the "Beginner's Book" now almost exclusively used in this country. But no one that takes the trouble to examine them carefully will deny that students instructed according to Professor Kaegi's method must attain a complete mastery of the Greek idiom — provided their teachers are such as Professor O'Shea requires in the last paragraph of his article "Concerning High-School Teachers" in the last number of last year's REVIEW.

At first my object was only to acquaint the readers of the SCHOOL REVIEW with these publications as deserving the attention of all who take interest in the development of the elementary instruction in Greek. One objection, however, may be mentioned here, raised not from the philologist's, but from the teacher's, standpoint. There should be a greater number of sentences in the "Exercise Book" for the practice of the second declension. This declension, in Professor Kaegi's admirable arrangement, first confronting the learner with the inflections of the Greek nouns, an ample supply of sentences ought to facilitate a thorough acquaintance with their first representatives. Professor Kaegi does not deem it beneath his dignity to permit to the sentences of several paragraphs a collection of detached verbal forms. Can we advocate a more liberal use of this elementary but valuable help, and especially its extension to the noun? No doubt the author supposes that drills of this kind be gone through in oral instruction; but a well-chosen set of such forms can be used with great advantage as written home work, or can serve as the starting-point for oral drill.

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